DEFINING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS' WORK IN SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT AND THE TEACHER EVALUATION PROCESS WITHIN AN ILLINOIS SCHOOL DISTRICT

BY

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DISSERTATION

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Abstract

Guided by a synthesis of human resource theory as well as teacher effectiveness and school improvement research and policy, this study aimed to better understand school administrators' responses to an externally imposed teacher quality measure (teacher-evaluation) and the extent that this measure influenced the school administrators' leadership work in school improvement.

This mixed-method study was conducted in two phases in a large, unit district in Illinois. The first phase utilized a cross-sectional questionnaire with 66 school administrators, which tested their work in implementing the district's new teacher-evaluation process and school administrators' leadership work in school improvement. Phase 2 utilized the interviews of nine purposefully selected school administrators through extreme case and homogenous sampling to further clarify Phase 1 issues of interest. District teacher-evaluation documents were reviewed and utilized to enhance understanding of school administrators' work.

Due to the current national discourse regarding teacher-evaluation as a key measure for determining teacher effectiveness and student-learning, the examination of school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and its influence on school improvement leadership practices is a critical area of study with limited research. This study found a moderate relationship between school administrators' overall school improvement priorities and work on teacher-evaluation, with school administrators' support for change and school administrator-teacher trust having the strongest relationship to teacher-evaluation. These findings were further clarified through three themes and 11 aligned sub-themes regarding school administrators' need to understand evolving priorities at the local level for measuring teaching effectiveness, as well as their changing roles and responsibilities in teacher-evaluation and school improvement. An

unanticipated finding that emerged from this study was the variance in foundational relationships among school administrators and teachers, central office administration, and union leadership, and the influence these relationships had upon school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement.

This dissertation is dedicated to my three amazing men…Husband John, the rock, who provided strength, support, and unfailing love to me in order to bring this learning pursuit full circle, and Sons Robert and Jack, the inspiration, who hopefully will also passionately engage in their own learning pursuits and make the journey "worth it"!!!

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Definition of Terms

The following definitions promote a common understanding of the terms used in this study.

Essential Supports for School Improvement

The five essential supports for school improvement include (a) leadership as a catalyst for change focused on instruction first and foremost, having a strategic orientation, and being inclusive in nature; (b) parent-community ties and professional capacity of the faculty and staff reflecting the individual and collective capacities of the adult stakeholders in the school; (c) professional capacity which depends greatly upon the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of the staff and their willingness to learn and grow in their professional capacity; (d) student-centered learning environment focused upon providing a safe and orderly setting that is conducive to academic work; this support also prioritizes creating a climate where students feel motivated to work hard (academic press); and (e) ambitious instruction which is what ultimately teaching is all about and the single most direct factor that affects student-learning; the other four supports are focused on enhancing ambitious instruction in order for improvements in student-learning to happen (Bryk, Camburn, & Louis, 1999; Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010).

Framework for Teaching

Danielson's framework identified 22 components of teaching practice within four domains: planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities. The developmental stages for each component were further articulated through a

continuum of professional practice across four levels of performance: unsatisfactory, basic, proficient, and distinguished (Danielson, 2007).

Large, Unit District

A large, unit district was defined as a school district that has an enrollment of at least 3,500 students in grades PreKindergarten through 12 (Large Unit District Association [LUDA], 2011).

Performance Evaluation Reform Act 2010 (Illinois Teacher-Evaluation Law)

The Illinois teacher-evaluation law, Performance Evaluation Reform Act 2010 (PERA 2010) defined: (a) mandatory state-supported training and pre-qualification for evaluators, training for teachers; (b) evidence of teacher effectiveness which includes evidence of professional practice (Danielson Framework, 2007) or comparable state-approved framework) with ≥ 50 % weight based upon a four-level scale and evidence of student-growth (i.e., formative assessments, grade level and course assessments, and other evidence of student progress) with ≥ 50 % weight based upon a four-level scale; (c) overall summative ratings based upon combined evidence of professional practice and student-growth using a four-level scale (i.e., unsatisfactory, needs improvement, proficient, and excellent); and (d) the requirement for a state audit, reporting and tracking function to ensure that evaluations are taking place consistent with state rules (Illinois General Assembly, 2010, November).

Senate Bill 7 further clarified application of the state's new evaluation law for teachers and principals, PERA 2010, in personnel decisions based upon teaching performance. Specifically, Senate Bill 7 addressed the following: (a) attainment of tenure, (b) certification

action by State Superintendent for teaching incompetency, (c) filling of new and vacant positions, (d) reduction in force steps, (e) tenured teacher dismissal, (f) collective bargaining and right to strike, (g) survey of learning conditions, and (h) training for elected school board members (Illinois General Assembly, 2011, June).

School Administrator Leadership Constructs

Essential School Improvement Supports were organized into four working leadership concepts of practice that include: (a) instructional leadership, which focused upon the school administrator providing vision around instructional priorities, understanding how students learn, tracking student progress, setting high standards for students and teachers, and communicating teaching/learning expectations through formative supervision and summative teacher-evaluation process; (b) inclusive leadership, addressed the school administrator's commitment to shared decision-making and fostering a professional community in the school; (c) school administrator-teacher trust supported by the school administrator caring about the teachers and their professional development, being trustworthy, respectful, and displaying confidence in teachers' ability to improve, and placing the needs of the students and staff first in school administrators' work; and (d) school administrator supported change, which is centered on the school administrator providing ongoing support and encouragement for teachers to take risks and try new instructional methods, being willing to make changes, providing teachers with necessary materials, being an effective manager, and addressing and removing, if needed, poorly performing teachers (Consortium on Chicago School Research [CCSR], 2007; Finnigan, 2010).

School Administrators

This research study defined school administrators as certified administrators who supervise and evaluate teachers in the school building. Based upon this definition, school administrators could be principals, assistant principals, deans of students, and school-based program supervisors.

Teacher-Evaluation

An expert estimation of the quality, quantity, and other characteristics of teaching practices based upon common standards and indicators of teacher quality (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2010).

Teacher-Evaluation Purpose–Formative

A supervisory function that enhances the professional skills of teachers by providing constructive feedback, recognizing and reinforcing outstanding practice, providing direction for staff development, and unifying teachers and administrators around improved student-learning (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Glickman et al., 2010; Haefele, 1993).

Teacher-Evaluation Purpose–Summative

A supervisory function intended to meet the organizational need to make consequential decisions such as dismissing incompetent teachers and providing legally defensible evidence for evaluation decisions (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Glickman et al., 2010; Haefele, 1993).

Teacher Effectiveness

Teaching practices and dispositions that produce high student outcomes, however defined or measured by the state and district, having full certification by the state, holding a bachelor's degree, and demonstrating content-area expertise in taught subject(s) (Coggshall, 2007).

Teacher Supervision

A collegial relationship between a teacher and formally designated supervisor that includes: (a) shared responsibility to focus upon teacher growth rather than teacher compliance and facilitate teacher collaboration of instructional improvement efforts (Glickman et al., 2010); (b) shared involvement in ongoing reflective inquiry by the teacher and school administrator (Gordon, 1997); and (c) administrative functions such as organizing professional learning, facilitating school improvement, and motivating staff (Pajak, 1989).

Chapter 1

Overview of the Study

In 1997, the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) challenged the educational status quo by declaring, "We propose an audacious goal for America's future—we will provide every student with what should be his/her educational birthright: access to competent, caring, qualified teaching" (p. 21). The focus upon high quality teaching has not lessened since this statement was made almost 15 years ago. Educators, policymakers, and even mothers talking at the local swimming pool understand that getting the "right teacher" is a critical school factor for supporting student-learning. Understanding school administrators' leadership work and priorities for ensuring quality teaching has never been more needed or more complex. This research examined school administrator leadership priorities by determining relationships between school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement and, in turn, sought to understand how this relationship influenced school administrators' leadership work in addressing teacher effectiveness.

Background of the Problem

Since 2001, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) has focused upon four congressional bipartisan priorities: high learning standards, accountability, teacher quality, and learning options for students. On the eve of reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), one of the fundamental principles of the current law, high quality teaching, continues to be a key focal point for improving student achievement (United States Department of Education [USDE], 2011).

Currently the USDE is advancing the teacher quality agenda by making teacher and leader effectiveness one of the four educational reform measures targeted by the $4.35 billion Race to the Top (RttT) competitive grant funded by the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA). This educational reform measure provided unprecedented federal dollars for states to competitively address four federal education assurances: (a) adoption of standards and assessments that prepare students to succeed in college, the workplace, and the global economy; (b) development of data systems that measure student-growth and inform teacher and school administrator decision-making; (c) recruitment, development, rewarding, and retention of effective teachers and school administrators; and (d) re-structuring of the lowest achieving schools (National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality [NCCTQ], 2009; USDE, 2009). Given the growing body of knowledge around the implications of quality teaching for supporting student-learning, the RttT national education agenda has prioritized the importance of teacher effectiveness, along with national common core standards and comprehensive data systems, as the key components for ensuring student-learning improvement (Commission on No Child Left Behind [CNCLB], 2007; Stanton & Matsko, 2010; Tucker & Stronge, 2005; USDE, 2009).

Teacher quality and teacher effectiveness have been defined and measured in many different ways by the political, educational, and research communities. Although no national, commonly agreed upon definition of teacher effectiveness or national teacher-evaluation measures exist, there is general consensus that teacher effectiveness should include (a) teacher behaviors linked to outcomes (i.e., what teachers do to achieve student outcomes), and (b) student outcomes (i.e., how much students learn and other valued student focused outcomes) (Hassel & Hassel, 2009). An Illinois State Board of Education action committee currently is determining state-wide teacher effectiveness measures that could include teacher certification, a

bachelor's degree, content-area knowledge in taught subject(s), demonstration of proficient teaching practices and dispositions as measured by *The Framework for Teaching* (Danielson, 2007) or a similar four-level teaching practice framework, and student-learning growth (Performance Evaluation Advisory Committee [PEAC], 2010).

A synthesis of teacher quality research (Goe, 2007) found several studies that convincingly argued for the importance of licensing and degrees for mathematic teachers, specifically in secondary grades, as well as the importance of teaching experience. Although more research still is needed in this area of interest, state policymakers focused upon local teacher effectiveness reform have not waited for identification of definitive qualities of effective teaching but instead have imposed legislature for the development of teacher effectiveness definitions, as well as metrics for teaching practice and teachers' influence on student-growth (National Council on Teacher Quality [NCTQ], 2010).

Responding to both national and state teacher accountability policy, current local leadership is being asked to do what many school administrators have not been formally trained to do: use teacher performance as a key lever in leading teaching and learning improvement. The push for greater teaching accountability within public schools continues to have a dramatic effect upon the teaching and professional learning priorities of teachers and, in turn, the school administrators' work in teacher hiring practices, professional development, evaluation, and in some cases remediation or dismissal (Marsh, 2000).

Statement of the Problem

A realistic challenge that exists for the school administrator, as both the school supervisor and evaluator, is to use teacher-evaluation as a key resource for improving teaching practice. In

theory, the teacher-evaluation process is in place to ensure teacher quality and, in turn, to increase student achievement. In reality, too often specific teacher-evaluations vary in supporting teachers' professional reflection and instructional change or providing consistent measures of teaching practice (Halverson & Clifford, 2006; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009; McLaughlin, 1990; Searfross & Enz, 1996). This school leadership problem includes moving teacher effectiveness policy into the school administrators' real work for leading and managing complex teaching growth and change (Halverson & Clifford, 2006), collecting valid ratings using the evaluation tool to make professional development decisions (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009), and connecting teacher-evaluation/feedback and aligned professional development to changes in teaching practice (DiPaola & Hoy, 2007; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2010; Kannapel & Clements, 2005; Kimball, 2002).

Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this mixed-methods study were (a) to understand the relationship between school administrators' work in implementing the teacher-evaluation process and leading school improvement and (b) to examine the extent to which school administrators' leadership work in school improvement was influenced by implementation of the teacher-evaluation process. This research was grounded in human resource theory that has as its "most pervasive themes: leadership; motivation; individuals in teams or groups; effects of the work environment on individuals; power and influence; and organizational change" (Shafritz, Ott, & Jang, 2005, p. 147). Human resource theory focuses upon understanding people's needs and how the organization interacts with these needs. These themes were contextualized in this study through the exploration of school administrators' work within four leadership constructs (i.e.,

instructional leadership, inclusive leadership, school administrator-teacher trust, and school administrator support for change) around essential school improvement priorities (Sebring, Allensworth, Bryk, Easton, & Luppesu, 2006) and the district teacher-evaluation process that was developed using the *Framework for Teaching* (Danielson, 2007).

Importance of the Study

Due to national, state, and local focus regarding teacher quality and subsequently teacher-evaluation, the examination of how school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation influenced his/her work in school improvement is an important topic that has limited empirical research to inform policy and school improvement decision-making. A deluge of teacher quality research has been conducted in the past 30 years. Teacher quality research has focused upon teacher qualifications (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyekoff, 2005; Cavalluzzo, 2004; Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin, & Heillig, 2005; Decker, Mayer, & Glazerman, 2004; Goldhaber & Brewer, 1999; Hill, Rowan, & Ball, 2005), teacher experience (Betts, Zau, & Rice, 2003; Clotfelter, Ladd, & Vigdor, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Goldhaber & Anthony, 2005), teacher practices (Borman & Kimball, 2005; Gallagher, 2004; Heneman, Milanowski, Kimball, & Odden, 2006; Holtzapple, 2003; Kimball, White, Milanowski, & Borman, 2004; Milanowski, 2004), teacher characteristics (Ehrenberg, Goldhaber, & Brewer, 1995; Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000; Leana & Pil, 2006), and teacher effectiveness (Aaronson, Barrow, & Sanders, 2003; Nye, Konstantopoulos, & Hedges, 2004; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005; Sanders & Wright, 1998), with the first three being the most researched and the latter two being the least studied.

Although there are limited teacher effectiveness studies focused upon the role of the school administrator for using teacher-evaluation to improve teaching practice, a few recent

school leadership studies are worth noting. Kimball and Milanowski (2009) studied school leaders' decision-making regarding teacher-evaluation ratings using a standards-based, teacher-evaluation system. The results revealed lower than expected validity ratings on teacher-evaluations by the school leaders. This study brought forward the challenge of accurately measuring teacher practice and using teacher-evaluation as a critical factor for making high-stakes decisions such as pay increases, promotion, remediation, or dismissal. The authors recommended that further research provide a detailed analysis of the context of school administrators' work when utilizing teacher-evaluation, including factors such as instructional focus and professional community, to "shed additional light on the evaluator's motivation to be accurate, and the validity of evaluation ratings" (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009, p. 66).

In a case study of one middle school administrator (Halverson & Clifford, 2006), researchers demonstrated the challenge of moving teacher-evaluation policy into meaningful school-based practice amidst the realities of the existing professional culture and school-based priorities of the school leader. Kimball (2002) focused specifically on the element of feedback within an evaluation system and how specific enabling conditions, perceived fairness, and usability of the feedback, determined to what degree the school administrator's feedback was utilized by the teacher. Each of these studies highlighted in different manners the complexity of using teacher-evaluation first as a valid assessment of teaching practice but equally important using teacher-evaluation as a school-improvement strategy when focusing upon teacher effectiveness.

There are many teacher-evaluation systems in the United States, since authority over education has been devolved to the states, and many of the states further assign this responsibility to the local educational authorities (LEAs). Illinois was selected as the state in

which to conduct this research due to the state's recent adoption of a new evaluation law for teachers and principals, Performance Evaluation Reform Act 2010 (PERA 2010). "Riverton" Unit School District, a large unit school district in Illinois, was selected as the research site due to the district's recent development of a new district teacher-evaluation process and the subsequent implementation of this process at all school levels in the district.

This mixed-methods research study provides in-depth empirical research from one large, unit school district in Illinois regarding the relationship between implementation of the teacher-evaluation process and school administrators' work as defined by four leadership constructs focused upon school improvement. These findings provide foundational policy and decision-making recommendations at the district level as well as greater understanding at the state and national level regarding priorities of school administrators' work when utilizing teacher-evaluation as a method for addressing teacher effectiveness.

Research Questions

This study had an overarching mixed-methods question, as well as sub-questions for each phase of the study, as recommended by Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) to shape the methods and the overall design of the study. The overarching question was: What is the relationship between school administrators' work in school improvement and the school administrators' perception of the implementation of the teacher-evaluation process, and how does this relationship influence school administrators' leadership work? Sub-questions included the following:

Phase 1

1. Do school administrators' work differ in school improvement based upon individual school administrator demographics?

2. Do school administrators' work differ in teacher-evaluation based upon individual school administrator demographics?

3. Do school administrators' work differ in school improvement based upon school characteristics?

4. Do school administrators' work differ in teacher-evaluation based upon school characteristics?

5. How are school administrators' perceptions of implementation of teacher-evaluation at their own school related to their perceptions of their work in school improvement as measured by leadership constructs (four leadership constructs based upon five essential supports for school improvement)?

   Phase 2

6. How do school administrators' reflections on their leadership work in both school improvement and teacher-evaluation illuminate and extend understanding of emergent findings in Phase 1?

Research Design

This research study was conducted in two phases. The first phase consisted of administration of a questionnaire that assessed the relationship between school administrators' work when implementing the district's teacher-evaluation process and school administrator leadership work in school improvement. Specifically, the questionnaire addressed school administrators' implementation of the district teacher-evaluation process and school administrators' work in key aspects of school improvement as described by the *Framework for Essential Supports for School Improvement* (Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010). *Improving Chicago's Schools: The Principals' Perspective Questionnaire* (Consortium on Chicago School Research [CCSR], 1997, 2005, 2007, 2009) was developed based upon longitudinal quantitative and qualitative data from the CCSR, ongoing research at the Center for School Restructuring at the University of Wisconsin, and former CCSR questionnaire items,

analyzed data, and shared results with the CCSR Steering Committee (Sebring et al., 2006). The different editions of the school administrator questionnaire are public domain. The questionnaire was abridged for this study, using only item clusters that specifically focused upon school administrator leadership in school improvement, and the questionnaire section on school characteristics. The teacher-evaluation questions utilized in this study were developed for the 2009 *Improving Chicago's Schools: The Principals' Perspective Questionnaire* by CCSR based upon the Chicago Public Schools' pilot of the *Framework for Teaching* as an evaluation process (Sartain, Stoelinga, & Krone, 2010).

The purpose of the second phase of the study, which consisted of individual school administrator interviews, was complementary as described by Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989), meaning that these data enhanced and elaborated the foci of the questionnaire. Phase two interviewees were selected through extreme case sampling. School administrators were purposefully selected due to responding substantially different (+/- 2.0 or two standard deviations away from the mean) from other school administrators on three or more questionnaire item responses. The voluntary, semi-structured interviews were conducted individually with one preschool, three elementary, two middle school, and three high school administrators, allowing each administrator to reflect upon Phase 1 issues of interest.

The rationale for using both quantitative and qualitative data was cross-sectional questionnaire data was enhanced by having participants clarify, illustrate, and extend initial questionnaire findings. This mixed-method approach provided broader, more developed findings/recommendations than would have been captured by using only questionnaire research methodology.

Assumptions

This study was based upon the following assumptions: (a) all subjects participating in this study responded honestly to questionnaires and interviews, (b) the data collection instruments yielded valid and complete data, (c) the research design and data analysis procedures for this study were appropriate, and (d) the school administrators in this study had the ability to utilize the standardized *Framework for Teaching* evaluation process in an accurate and consistent manner in order to inform and support their school improvement leadership work.

Limitations

This study's design and methodology are well suited to answer the research questions but a few limitations must be recognized. A possible limitation to my study could be that I used only the perceptions of school administrators to measure school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement. In future research, in addition to collecting school administrators' perception data regarding teacher-evaluation and school improvement, teachers and possibly other key stakeholders perceptions should be considered in order to more broadly determine school administrators' work in relationship to teacher-evaluation and school improvement.

In the present study, I examined school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement *at one point in time*. Similar to my study, most research on teacher effectiveness consists of cross-sectional surveys that provide one-point-in-time "snapshots" that are unable to shed light on school administrators' ongoing work in teacher effectiveness. Future studies should consider investigating school administrators' work in teacher effectiveness *over a*

period of time in order to share the quality of leadership as dynamic and changing rather than static.

The teacher-evaluation process in this study was based upon the *Framework for Teaching* (Danielson, 2007), which has components that describe 22 specific teaching standards of practice. Districts in Illinois are required by state law and policy to use the *Framework for Teaching* as their teacher-evaluation framework or a similar teaching practice framework. Districts not in Illinois may choose to utilize a different set of teaching standards other than the Danielson framework. Non-Illinois districts that utilize this research should consider conducting a crosswalk between the *Framework for Teaching* and their teacher-evaluation framework standards to see what commonalities and differences exist.

There is a need to articulate my own bias toward using the *Framework for Teaching* as a teacher-evaluation tool. I work for a non-profit education organization in Illinois that supports districts in changing their current teacher-evaluation process to the *Framework for Teaching* evaluation process. I also have past experience as a school administrator in using the Danielson framework as an evaluation tool and have facilitated development of several Illinois districts' teacher-evaluation processes using the Danielson framework as the evaluation tool. I did not facilitate the development of the teacher-evaluation process in the Riverton School District. My past and current work using the *Framework for Teaching* as an evaluation process was articulated at the beginning of the research process to all potential research participants.

In addition, the district that was selected for this research project is a member district of the non-profit education organization at which I am employed. Although the district is a member of my employment organization, I have never worked in the district. I articulated orally and in writing that the research that was conducted in the district was solely for the purpose of my

dissertation study and would not be used or shared with the administration or staff of the non-profit education organization in which I am employed. To avoid conflict of interest between research and employment responsibilities, I conducted the study during non-work days.

The final limitation focused upon the research participants' ability or willingness to respond to the questionnaire or the interview questions. I provided an overview of the research purpose and design to all school administrators in the district to confirm that each school administrator had knowledge of and equal access to voluntary participation in the research study. I supported a low-risk research environment through in-person questionnaire distribution and collection process, use of an informed consent waiver to increase level of confidentiality, and through verbal and written assurances that all information obtained during the research project would be kept secure and accessible only to myself during the data analysis and report development period.

Delimitations

Delimitations were purposefully determined based upon time availability, financial resources, and targeted population. The study was confined to one large, unit district in Illinois. I had limited economic and time resources to conduct the research study. In order to deeply study this research problem through a mixed-method methodology, I needed to limit the number of districts to one and therefore limited the population of this study to only the school administrators in this district. In addition, the research study was limited to collecting data, both questionnaire and interviews, from only principals, assistant principals, deans of students, and school-based program supervisors, referenced to in this study as school administrators, because this is the only population in the district that both supervises and evaluates teachers. In

purposefully limiting the study's possible sample size, I also impeded the level of significance that could be placed upon the overall findings of this study, and encourage that these findings be used only as suggestive versus conclusive.

Organization of the Study

The primary focus of Chapter 1 was to connect the three research "sign posts" together for the reader to understand the priorities of the research study (Creswell, 2009). In Chapter 1, I outlined the basic elements of the research study by defining the research purpose, research questions, and research methodology.

To understand the complexity of addressing teacher effectiveness through school administrators' work in school improvement, Chapter 2 first synthesizes historical and current teacher quality reform literature. The chapter then clarifies the need to use human resource theory to ground school administrators' complex work regarding teaching effectiveness. This literature is embedded into school administrator leadership priorities defined by four leadership constructs and visually described through an evolving conceptual framework.

Chapter 3 describes the development of the sequential, two-phase, mixed-methods research design used to support understanding of the research purpose. The sampling methodology, instrument description, data collection methodology, and analysis of the research process were also articulated.

Chapter 4 provides the analysis and findings of the data in each of the research phases, as well as the cumulative data set. In Chapter 5, conclusions, recommendations, and implications for future research regarding school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation were provided for various audiences.

Chapter 2

Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

Victor Cousin (1839), secretary to the board of the first normal school in the United States confirmed, "As is the teacher, so is the school" (Polleck, 2007, p. 19). The focus upon having high quality teachers in schools remains after more than 170 years but today carries with it additional high stakes accountability for both the teacher and school administrator. As states and school districts quickly move forward in addressing teacher effectiveness requirements as outlined in President Obama's educational Race to the Top policy (USDE, 2009), the school administrator plays a pivotal role in implementing and utilizing the teacher-evaluation process as a catalyst for addressing teaching effectiveness and increasing student achievement.

This literature review describes the political, theoretical, and educational thinking that guided the examination of (a) the relationship between school administrators' work in a teacher-evaluation process and school improvement, and (b) the extent to which school administrators' leadership work in school improvement was influenced by implementation of the teacher-evaluation process. The literature review begins by providing the context of the study through description of the political and educational parameters of teacher policy, research, and teacher-evaluation at the national, state, and district levels. The review, then, utilizes the themes of human resource theory to illuminate the complexity of school administrators' work when using teacher-evaluation as a catalyst in school improvement. The chapter moves to synthesize research that targets the school administrators' role as both evaluator and supervisor within four leadership constructs based upon essential supports for school improvement. Finally, the chapter provides a conceptual framework of school administrators' essential leadership work in school improvement when implementing teacher-evaluation.

Political and Educational Parameters of Teacher Effectiveness

Two fundamental purposes for teacher-evaluation are quality assurance and professional learning. The teacher-evaluation system is the only mechanism a school or district legally has to ensure that a competent professional teaches every student (Danielson, 2007). Even with strong support from the federal government and leading educational, policy, and financial stakeholders, the challenge for defining and implementing a national or state teacher effectiveness policy and teacher-evaluation process has proven to be daunting. The challenges are twofold: first developing an agreed upon definition of the criteria that describes teacher effectiveness and second designing and implementing with fidelity an aligned teaching performance-student-growth measurement process (Coggshall, 2007). This two-fold challenge is confirmed by the Race to the Top state funding guidelines for teacher effectiveness priorities:

1. Determine an evaluation approach that includes measuring student-growth;
2. employ rigorous, transparent, and equitable processes for differentiating the effectiveness of teachers and school administrators, using multiple rating categories that take into account data on student-growth as a significant factor;
3. provide to each teacher and school administrator his or her own data and rating; and
4. use this information when making decisions regarding evaluations, professional development, compensation, promotion, tenure, and dismissals. (National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality [NCCTQ], 2009, p. 3)

There is a growing belief at the national and state level that the current manner in which teachers are evaluated in most school districts fails to improve teacher practice or student-learning. In a recent opinion article, American Federation of Teachers President Randi Weingarten (2010, ¶ 5) acknowledged, "with rare exceptions, teacher-evaluation procedures are broken—cursory, perfunctory, superficial, and inconsistent." Research has confirmed Ms. Weingarten's opinion that most evaluation systems, as they are currently designed and

implemented, are ineffective. The current evaluation process typically fails to provide teachers with information to make timely and effective improvements in instructional practices (McLaughlin, 1990; Searfross & Enz, 1996). Often, summative evaluations have relied upon a single observation by a school administrator, who has been minimally trained to evaluate with tools that are perceived as subjective. Most evaluation tools have not differentiated between strong and weak instruction, rendering evaluation as a strategy for teacher improvement limited or useless (Halverson & Clifford, 2006; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009).

Nationally, administrators in school systems as diverse and scattered across the country as Atlanta, Chicago, Denver, Toledo, and San Francisco have rarely dismissed low-performing teachers—often fewer than 1% of the teachers in any given year (TNTP, 2007). In 2005, the Small Newspaper Group (SNG) reported that 83% of Illinois's school districts had never rated a tenured teacher as "unsatisfactory." On January 15, 2010, the Illinois General Assembly (IGA) passed the Performance Evaluation Reform Act (PERA 2010). A primary motivator behind the PERA 2010 was the belief that existing school district performance evaluation systems had failed to adequately distinguish between effective and ineffective teachers and school administrators. PERA requires all Illinois districts to implement a standards-based teacher-evaluation system with student achievement indicators by 2016 (IGA, 2010), with certain provisions having varying implementation dates based upon district size or student achievement levels on state assessments (Illinois State Board of Education, [ISBE], 2010).

Recognizing the need to have multiple metrics to measure teacher effectiveness, the federal government and many states, including Illinois, have specified that beyond student-learning data there must be multiple measures used to evaluate teachers. Other measures include some form of teaching observation and additional tools that align to the real work of teaching

practice (e.g., teaching observation documentation, student and parent feedback questionnaires, teaching portfolios, teacher logs, student work samples, teacher interviews) that school administrators can use to inform their decisions regarding the degree of effective teaching (Duncan, 2009; ISBE, 2010; Stanton & Matsko, 2010).

NCLB requirements bring to the forefront the importance of licensure or certification as a significant indicator of teacher quality, but this component has been determined to be insufficient for defining teacher effectiveness by both researchers (Kimball et al., 2004; Rivkin et al., 2005; Stanton & Masko, 2010; Tucker & Stronge, 2005; Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997) and educational policy leaders and organizations (e.g., Duncan, 2009; Goldhaber & Anthony, 2005). Teacher quality research over the past 30 years has focused upon four categories (Goe, 2007). The first three categories, teacher qualifications, teacher characteristics, and teacher practices, primarily have been used to define teacher quality based upon determined variables and exist independent of teachers' direct influence on student achievement. The fourth category, teacher effectiveness, is a relatively new area of teacher quality research and currently has limited empirical studies to determine the usefulness of measuring teacher quality based specifically upon a teacher's ability to directly improve student achievement.

Teacher qualifications research includes assessment of teachers' coursework, subject matter education, certification, and credentials when correlated to student achievement scores. Teacher qualifications have been the standard measure under NCLB highly qualified certification requirements. Overall, teacher quality findings highlighted a strong consensus that mathematics certification matters, particularly in secondary grades, but certification in other content areas is not as important (Boyd et al., 2005; Cavalluzzo, 2004; Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Decker et al., 2004; Goldhaber & Brewer 1999; Hill et al., 2005; Lubienski, Lubienski, &

Crawford, 2008). In addition, there was substantial evidence that increasing teachers' experience (e.g., coursework, professional development, mentoring) as measured by a teacher's contribution to student-growth counted most in the teachers' first five years in the profession but after that, experience showed limited additional effect (Betts et al., 2003; Clotfelter et al., 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Goldhaber & Anthony, 2005)

Teacher characteristics as an indicator of teacher quality focused upon variables such as attitudes, efficacy, beliefs, race, ethnicity, and gender. There is limited research or agreement that any of these measured characteristics have a significant impact on student achievement (Ehrenberg et al., 1995; Goddard et al., 2000; Leana & Pil, 2006).

An escalating area of teacher quality research has focused upon understanding the connection between teacher practices and student-learning. Many of these studies utilize the standards-based teaching continuum developed by Charlotte Danielson (1996, 2007) for which researchers have found some positive correlation between a teacher's practice and student achievement, but overall results lack findings that are significant, convincing, and causal (Borman & Kimball, 2005; Gallagher, 2004; Heneman et al., 2006; Holtzapple, 2003; Kimball et al., 2004; Milanowski, 2004).

Many reports, studies, and research articles published in recent years suggest teacher effectiveness data, some combination of teacher qualifications, characteristics, and practices, matters in terms of student-learning. A number of researchers and policymakers, the latter including President Obama and U. S. Secretary of Education Duncan, have suggested that effectiveness, as measured by teachers' direct contributions to students' learning, should be an important component of assessing teacher quality (Sanders & Horn, 1998; Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997). Due to immature data on student-learning measures and unresolved decisions

regarding teacher effectiveness criteria, this area of research is still understudied (Aaronson et al., 2003; Nye et al., 2004; Rivkin et al., 2005).

One key aspect of teacher quality has been defining what teacher effectiveness is, but the other priority has addressed how to measure it. The Center for American Progress (a nonpartisan, tax-exempt research institute) and The New Teacher Project (a nonprofit organization funded partially by USDE, Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, and Joyce Foundation) each conducted studies of teacher-evaluation systems in selected school districts throughout the United States, and both concluded that on the whole, the manner in which teacher-evaluation was being used in the different districts did not substantially improve instruction. Each research study also revealed that the vast majority of teachers in these districts were rated above average and sometimes well above average (Donaldson, 2009; TNTP, 2009).

Challenges for using a teacher-evaluation process within a district to accurately measure teacher effectiveness includes: (a) districts often use poor evaluation instruments that focus on what could be measured easily but not necessarily on what is important in teaching (Donaldson, 2009); (b) limited district guidance and training for evaluators in collecting evidence of teaching practice (Ashby & Krug, 1998; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009); (c) lack of evaluator time to conduct comprehensive and accurate evaluations due to increased management challenges (Halverson & Clifford, 2006); (d) lack of evaluator skill in specific content areas in which teachers are evaluated, especially at the secondary level (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009); (e) lack of evaluators' will to provide critical feedback but instead support a culture of being nice (Halverson & Clifford, 2006); (f) absence of high-quality feedback for teachers even when teachers express a desire for more concrete, detailed professional conversation (Blase & Blase, 1999; Danielson & McGreal, 2000); and (g) few consequences attached to evaluation in

differentiating exceptional versus remediable teaching expertise (Donaldson, 2009; TNTP, 2009). Even school administrators who were perceived as "successful" evaluators of a standards-based teacher-evaluation process admitted to navigating trade-offs with staff as they implemented a new teacher-evaluation tool/process within the current school context and culture (Halverson, Kelley, & Kimball, 2004; Kimball, 2002).

Historically, teacher-evaluation has provided a formal process to comply with community, state, and national teacher quality regulations and priorities, providing teacher ratings at the end of the school year, and determining whether a teacher would return to work the following school year. Between the 1900s and 1950s, teacher-evaluation was largely based upon teachers' personal characteristics rather than specific knowledge about effective teaching and learning (Ellett & Teddlie, 2003). With the emergence of scientific management and behaviorism during the late 1940s, and the advent of the cold war, as well as the space race during the 1950s and 1960s, there were increased efforts among educational researchers and practitioners to pay attention to observable teaching practices (behaviors) and a variety of student outcomes through development of a plethora of classroom-based observation checklist systems (e.g., Simon & Boyer, 1967). During the 1970s, Madeline Hunter's direct instruction model and other process-product teaching approaches continued to help support objective-based criteria appearing in many teacher-evaluation systems (Medley, 1977).

The 1980s brought forward many new educational reforms with one being the "movement away from the importance of local, district policies to evaluate teachers as employees and state-mandated, on-the-job assessments and evaluations of teaching for the purpose of licensure" (Ellett & Teddlie, 2003, p. 106). The state of Georgia took the lead in developing and implementing a state-wide effort to evaluate on-the-job performance of teachers

through the use of Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments (TPAI), specifically targeting the initial licensure of beginning teachers (Capie, Anderson, Johnson, & Ellett, 1980). Many other states quickly following suit. Although large amounts of human and financial commitment were provided for these large-scale, state-mandated programs, most have been overhauled, minimized or disbanded (Cuban, 1990). During the 1990s and into the 21st century, teacher-evaluation continued to be a driving force for school reform in regard to teacher accountability with the predominant focus on teacher behavior and teacher performance. Through this compliancy lens, Berube and Dexter (2006) found that the evaluation process was summative in nature and conducted through classroom observations and other compliancy measures, leading to a final judgment or overall rating.

The evolving view from educational policy organizations and social capital literature is teacher-evaluation systems need to include an analysis of teaching based on student-learning (BMGF, 2010; Duncan, 2009; Jerald, Haycock, & Wilkins, 2009; Iwanicki, 2001; Stanton & Masko, 2010). This type of teacher-evaluation system considers

> what students need to know and be able to do, what the teacher can do to foster learning, and how successful the teacher has been in achieving the desired student outcomes, and how the teacher should teach the lesson the next time. (Iwanicki, 2001, p. 58)

A formative evaluation process that seeks to provide both clarity around teacher quality and to provide pathways for professional growth contains three essential elements: (a) a clear definition of effective teaching, including a continuum of acceptable performance based criteria; (b) techniques for assessing all aspects of teaching, even those that go beyond the classroom and include communication with families; and (c) trained evaluators who can make informed, consistent judgments about teaching performance (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). Research directs that the evaluator needs to be supported in recognizing relevant evidence of evaluative

criteria, consistently interpreting evidence of expected aspects of teaching, making valid judgments about the teacher's performance, and then providing constructive feedback during reflective discussions (Ashby & Krug, 1998; Kimball, 2002; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009).

The district that is the focus of this study, Riverton Unit School District, currently is implementing a standards-based teacher-evaluation process using the *Framework for Teaching* (Danielson, 2007). The *Framework for Teaching* (Danielson, 1996) initially was developed using teacher effect research, consultation with expert practitioners and researchers, job analysis studies, and examination of state licensure systems (Danielson, 1996; Dwyer, 1994). The framework explicitly was created to provide a practical tool focused upon professional teaching practices, both in and out of the classroom, that were aligned to acceptable standards of teaching, including Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) and National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) (Goe, 2007).

The framework "identifies those aspects of a teacher's responsibilities that have been documented through empirical studies and theoretical research as promoting improved student-learning" (Danielson, 2007, p. 2) through 22 components of practice within four domains: planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities. The developmental teaching stages for each component are further articulated through a continuum of professional practice across four levels of performance: unsatisfactory, basic, proficient, and distinguished practice (Danielson, 2007).

When the *Framework for Teaching* is used as an evaluation tool for assessing teacher practice, Danielson and McGreal (2000) recommend organizing the evaluation process through a three-track, differentiated system. In a differentiated system, the district determines, often through a collective bargaining process, what formative and summative evaluation procedures

and resources are required within each track. Although the *Framework for Teaching* may be used to evaluate teaching practice and come to a valid judgment regarding the overall proficiency of teaching practice (Sartain et al., 2010), Danielson's (2008) primary reason for developing the *Framework for Teaching* was to promote professional learning between and among education professionals.

Based upon the national teacher quality agenda expounded upon by educational leaders and policy organizations (Duncan, 2009; NCCTQ, 2009; TNTP, 2009) the assumption has been made by policymakers as well as state and federal lawmakers that by improving the teacher-evaluation process within schools that teacher effectiveness will increase and, in turn, ensure improved student achievement (Figure 1). This study specifically focuses upon a key aspect of this teacher quality agenda by purposefully determining the work and priorities of school administrators in using teacher-evaluation (i.e., teacher effectiveness) to address school improvement (i.e., student-learning).

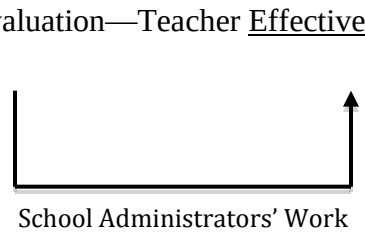

Figure 1. School administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement.

The ability of the school administrator to use the teacher-evaluation tool to measure teacher effectiveness and therefore influence school improvement decisions was assumed by this researcher as stated in Chapter 1 and was not part of this study. I did not make this assumption in naïveté of the research regarding influencing factors that exist for school administrators' ability to collect and use valid teaching data to make appropriate school improvement decisions.

Kimball and Milanowski (2009) organized these factors into three broad categories: motivation (will), expertise (skill), and the school environment (evaluation context). Research provided that an evaluator's "will" is influenced by concerns regarding the after effects of giving negative feedback to teachers (Kluger & Denisi, 1996) as well as not being able to separate feelings about the teacher and judgments about his/her teaching practice (Cleveland, Murphy, & Williams, 1989).

The evaluator's attitude toward the evaluation process also can affect the school administrator's skill for determining accuracy and validity of teaching practice (Tziner, Murphy, & Cleveland, 2001). The evaluator's skill especially is important when assessing teaching in specific content areas in which the evaluator has no background experience (Nelson & Sassi, 2005). Research consistently has shown that providing evaluator training for understanding the steps of the evaluation system, and practice for observing and determining ratings has a positive effect on evaluators' overall rating accuracy (Bretz, Milkovich, & Reed, 1992; Sartain et al., 2010; Woehr & Huffcutt, 1994).

School context also was determined to influence evaluators' ratings. Klein (1998) provided that evaluators tend to rate a moderate level of performance higher if other performers in the group are poor performers and lower if other teachers were good performers. Non-standardized benchmarks for effective teaching influenced evaluators to either inflate or deflate teachers' evaluation ratings and provide inaccurate teaching feedback (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009).

Ultimately, teachers have to understand the "what" and "why" of change. School administrators need to clearly communicate and provide ongoing conversations around the teacher-evaluation and school improvement efforts—the tools, the expectations, the procedures,

the ratings—enable understanding of the shared work of teacher effectiveness in an environment of trust, transparency, and commitment.

Human Resource Theory as a Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework that addresses the complex manner in which teachers, school administrators, and the organization work together through change was central to this study. Human resource theory posits that, given a particular outcome, it is assumed that the organization's creativity, flexibility, and overall ability to improve evolves from employee growth and development. Consistent assumptions regarding this theory include:

1. Organizations exist to serve human needs (rather than the reverse).
2. Organizations and people need each other. (Organizations need ideas, energy, and talent; people need careers, salaries, and work opportunities).
3. When the fit between the individual and the organization is poor, one or both will suffer; individuals will be exploited, or will seek to exploit the organization, or both.
4. A good fit between individual and organization benefits both: human beings find meaningful and satisfying work, and organizations get the human talent and energy that they need. (Bolman & Deal, 2003, p. 115)

The issue of "fit" between workers and managers was first addressed in the Hawthorne Experiments, when Roethlisberger (1941) recounted how 15 years of research led by Elton Mayo at Western Electric's Hawthorne plant revealed that efficiency by the worker was highly dependent upon the significance the worker placed upon doing the work itself and was not based upon external stimulants, as previously assumed. Mayo found that the behavior of workers could be not separated from their "attitudes" about the work and these attitudes had a marked effect on productivity. These attitudes were not entirely logical but instead were based upon feelings and beliefs as well as the worker's past history and current satisfaction in working with others in the

organization. A key understanding that came out of the Hawthorne experiments was that money was of secondary importance to "fitting in" the organization—whether an individual employee was being asked to help a newcomer, being put in charge of a challenging job, or being trained in some role that had special skills—all of these social recognitions helped the workers to know where they stood in the organization (Roethlisberger, 1941).

The importance of managerial beliefs in regard to employee motivation and commitment has been described in McGregor's (1957) Theory X and Theory Y. Managers who had a fundamental belief that employees need to be directed, controlled, and modified to meet the organization's needs were labeled as Theory X. Neuliep (1987), for example, found that Theory X oriented managers reported a preference for anti-social persuasive tactics such as threats, aversive stimulation (i.e., punishment), and deceit. Organizational managers who presupposed that employees do not inherently dislike work but actually like to work when they were able to exercise self-direction and self-control were labeled as Theory Y. Theory Y oriented managers reported a preference for pro-social persuasive methods such as complementary or supportive statements and organizing the working conditions so that employees could achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward organizational rewards (Neuliep, 1987).

Employee Motivation Theory (Argyris & Schon, 1978), known as the organizational counterpart to Theory Y, built upon both McGregor and Mayo's work by looking at the complexity of "fit" between manager and employees as they worked together to solve challenging organizational problems. The way the organization responded to problems or change defined it as a learning organization (double-loop) or as an environment that supported laissez-faire thinking (single-loop).

Single-loop leadership behaviors in a system were "only adequate enough to enable the organization to implement its existing policies and meet its stated objectives" (Argyris, 1990, p. 46). Single-loop responses tended to perpetuate current assumptions and practices held by organizations regarding change (Abernathy, 1999). Double-loop learning instead required organizations to question their underlying goals and assumptions that governed systemic behavior as well as examine values that guided actions when finding new solutions that addressed complex change. It is this type of learning that allows professional communities within a school to continuously grow in productive ways and supports teachers through facilitative versus directive methods (Argyris, 1970; Argyris & Schon, 1978; McGregor, 1957; Scribner, Cockrell, Cockrell, & Valentine, 1999; Sergiovanni, 1996).

Single or double-loop learning can be seen playing out in school administrators' work in relation to teacher-evaluation and school improvement activities. Single-loop or Model I management tends to view evaluation as a quality control task to be accomplished, not as an opportunity to pose questions and problem-solve around student-learning. Model I actions perpetuate the current "theories-in-use" (Argyris, 1990, p. 47) that support school and district leadership to maintain and reinforce the original conditions that have subjected supervision of teaching to one generally of inspection, oversight, and judgment of classroom instruction (Gordon, 1997), and evaluations to become a "nonevent, a ritual [school administrators and teachers] participate in according to well-established scripts without much consequence" (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 203).

Double-loop learning or Model II requires organizational change to happen through leaderships' use of communication, transparency, and stewardship to guide the growth process (Abernathy, 1999). In a Model II environment, the school administrator looks to the individual

and collective needs of teachers in order to restructure a school into a community-like organization. Through shared organizational decision-making, schools develop inclusive leadership practices that ask staff to examine student-learning and develop a common action plan around instructional practice, generate new group insights, and build capacity to interpret and try promising practices in the classroom (Glickman, 1992; Schon, 1988). This understanding guides the school administrator to develop listening-learning-response loops through a variety of tools to facilitate the teachers' thinking on how to address instructional-environmental change as well as ways to promote problem-solving through informal conversations, ongoing feedback, and encouragement to new practices (Blase & Blase, 1999). The school administrator also supports differentiated professional learning in which the individual needs of teachers are assessed and supported in an environment where "teachers discover and construct professional knowledge and skills" (Pajak, 1993, p. 318).

Differentiating between Human Relations Theory and Human Resource Theory is useful when trying to understand significantly different approaches to participative leadership. Since the 1920s, managers have been instructed to consider the "whole man" rather than just a worker, who has certain skills and aptitudes by showing interest in the employees personal well-being and developing professional relationships with each worker (Dubin, 1958). The key element in the human relations approach is its basic objective for making the organizational members *feel* like they are a key part of the overall work. Miles (1965) shared that the overall goal of this approach was to build cooperation and compliance among the workers by sharing information with subordinates and involving them to some degree with departmental decision-making, termed by critics as putting a "human look" on the classic face of autocratic management. In contrast, human resource theory is focused upon leadership working with individuals or groups

to address problems through commitment to communication and problem-solving around difficult problems that exist in the organization. Human resource theory views individuals as organizational resources for defining and solving problems as capable, responsible, self-directed, and ultimately self-controlled members of the organization (Miles, 1965).

Human resource theory informs school administrators' thinking around challenges that exist when implementing a high-stakes accountability process such as teacher-evaluation. As highlighted in the Hawthorne experiments, an employee's beliefs are based upon past experiences and these beliefs have a compelling influence on the worker's motivation. Due to past mismanaged, ill-conceived, or short-lived initiatives for change, many experienced teachers have developed considerable skepticism about how supportive the organization will be for implementation efforts around any new initiative, including teacher-evaluation (Huberman, 1988).

Negative beliefs based upon past experiences may graft into the teachers' perceptions of the current reform initiative. Marks and Louis (1999) found strong, positive effects for leadership that provided an enabling environment by promoting and participating in teacher learning and development. School administrators' overall commitment toward the cohesiveness of the professional learning environment and organizational culture for risk-taking was determined to have a large impact on teachers' beliefs and commitment for addressing instructional changes.

School administrators also need to empower teachers to participate in making decisions about their teaching practices based upon evaluation feedback. Research suggests that based upon teachers' perception of the fairness, timeliness, credibility and utility of the feedback from evaluators, the teacher will make improvements to his/her practice (Kimball, 2002). Encouraging teachers to utilize a variety of resources to assist in improvement processes and making available

time to acquire new skills, individually or collectively, also enables new professional learning to happen (Leithwood, 2001).

Beliefs and attitudes of teachers are supported through the development of a trusting, supportive, and professional interactive learning environment (Blase & Blase, 1999). The balancing act to use a standardized teacher-evaluation process as both a teaching quality measure and resource for professional growth by the school administrator is critical. The strength of implementing a teacher-evaluation process comes back to four leadership priorities: instructional focus, collective commitment, trust and communication, and the willingness to support change (Bryk et al., 2010).

School Administrators' Leadership Work in Teacher Effectiveness

The school administrator, rather than any other leadership position in the district educational system, is the focus of this study due to the direct responsibility the school administrator has for both teacher-evaluation and school improvement (Ashby & Krug, 1998; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009). School administrators have an indirect versus direct effect on student achievement but a direct effect on teacher effectiveness as they shape the school's internal processes, climate, and resources (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Leithwood, Begley, & Cousins, 1990; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Leithwood, Patten, & Jantzi, 2010; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010; Marks & Printy, 2003; Witziers, Bosker, & Kruger, 2003). This research is consistent with Pitner's (1988) study that found principal behavior ultimately was related to student performance through interactions with people, most notably teachers. School administrators' actions were found to influence the actions of teachers, the school, and student achievement through influence on teachers.

The daily challenges of being a school administrator appear to the outsider to be extremely complex and demanding. For most school administrators, brevity, variety, and fragmentation characterize their daily work (Peterson, 1989) with random periods of decision-making and budgetary responsibilities, problem-solving, collaboration, and sporadic acts focused upon developing and improving the instructional core (Elmore, 2000). School administrators are placed in an untenable position to know it all, solve it all, and do it all within the school setting. Against formidable odds, the school administrator is situated to be the implementer of the teacher-evaluation process and responsible for the fidelity of the district's teacher effectiveness accountability process. School administrators increasingly are held accountable for their school's performance based upon the broad theory that "if principals do their jobs, then teachers will teach and students will learn more effectively than has been the case in the past" (Murphy & Beck, 1994, p. 6).

To bring about change and improvement envisioned and now mandated by state and local teacher quality policy, the school administrator must utilize a working school improvement framework rooted in a core set of ideas about how a school could (and should) be organized for improving student-learning (Bryk et al., 2010). If school improvement is to happen, school administrators' efforts largely must focus upon influencing essential conditions within the organization for increasing teachers' effective work of engaging students in learning.

The essential supports for school improvement. The *Framework for Essential Supports for School Improvement* was the working school improvement framework used in this study to organize and define organizational characteristics of successful urban schools (Bryk et al., 1999; Bryk et al., 2010). This school improvement framework evolved during the mid-1990s as an outgrowth and guiding resource for the ongoing research within Chicago Public Schools by

the CCSR. The framework includes five essential supports: (a) school leadership, (b) parent-community ties, (c) professional capacity, (d) student-centered learning climate, and (e) ambitious instruction as further defined in this study's definition of terms (Sebring et al., 2006). The framework is organized as a practical, visual school improvement guide for school administrators, teachers, parents, and school-system leaders based upon effective schools research (Levine & Lezotte, 1990;[1] Murphy, 1992[2]).

Effective schools research is not without its critics. The effective schools research has been criticized for using correlation data versus value-added data. Although there are significant positive correlations between the identified effect characteristics and chosen measures of school effectiveness, the research has not shown that these characteristics cause the effectiveness for which they are associated (Cuban, 1998).

Although effective school research continues to be of interest within the research community, school improvement research has become a focal point of recent educational studies. How are school improvement and effective school research alike and different? Effective schools ask, "What do effective schools look like?" and school improvement research asks, "How do schools improve over time?" Effects examine inputs, outputs, and organizational structure while school improvement is focused on school culture and the change process (Glickman et al., 2010). Commonalities exist between effective schools and school improvement research. Both school

[1] In the latter 1980s and early 1990s, a new round of effective schools research was carried out by Levine and Lezotte, (1990), Teddlie and Stronfield, (1993), and Creemers, (1996). Although strong leadership, order, agreed-upon priorities, monitoring student and teacher achievement continued to be priorities, new correlates such as site-based management, professional development, parental involvement, and teacher collaboration and collegiality were also determined to be essential to school improvement.

[2] Murphy (1992) suggested that since effective schools correlates tended to change in different studies and contexts, educators needed to move to a set of broad principles that underlie the various correlates of effective schools. These principles include (a) all students can learn; (b) schools should focus upon and rigorously assess learning outcomes; (c) schools assume a fair share of responsibility for student-learning; and (d) schools should be structurally, symbolically, and culturally interconnected, providing for consistency in the overall school environment.

reform models prioritize various sources of leadership, parental involvement, focus upon teaching and learning, teacher collaboration, and data-based feedback around student and teacher improvement using multiple indicators of progress. Priorities of both effective schools and school improvement are aligned and identified within the *Framework for Essential Supports for School Improvement.*

The *Framework for Essential Supports for School Improvement* has been shown to be an important school organizational tool because the CCSR found that urban schools strong in most of the essential supports were at least 10 times more likely than schools weak in most of the supports to show substantial gains in both reading and mathematics. Schools immersed in the school supports were not likely to lose ground or stagnate in student-learning achievement. In contrast to schools strong in the essential supports, schools weak in essential supports were four to five times more likely to stagnate (Sebring et al., 2006).

The Consortium's research found that the greatest improvements in schools' work were found in the organizational strength of all of the essential supports being interwoven through the school administrators' and staffs' collective work around learning improvement. Each support appeared to enhance the functioning of the other supports. The inverse also was true: a weakness in any organization element could undermine strengths in other areas (Sebring, et al., 2006).

The importance of multiple essential supports being implemented and supported simultaneously by the formal leader and school stakeholders suggests that narrow leadership with limited strategies will have restricted success in improving the teaching/learning environment (Bryk et al., 2010). For example, a school administrator who focused upon involving parents, community members, and key staff in the school decision-making process around engaging student learners could have limited systematic gains in accelerating school

improvement if the teachers and parents have limited understanding of the need to change current practice or do not feel that the school's learning environment is conducive for teachers to try more engaging learning practices with students.

In order to lead school change through integration of essential supports, the school administrator must break away from single-loop thinking that limits new teaching approaches, stifles creativity, and curtails school administrators to "building the bridge to nowhere" (Murphy, 2002, p. 181). Sheppard's (1996) research synthesis of vital behaviors of the school administrator as both the instructional supervisor (Glickman et al., 2010; Gordon, 1997; Pajak, 1989) and evaluator of teacher practice includes focus upon leadership behaviors that frame and communicate school learning goals, providing supervision and evaluation that emphasizes instruction, aligning curriculum with instruction priorities, monitoring student progress, protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for learning, and supporting teacher's professional development, as the most influential leadership behaviors.

DiPaola and Hoy (2007) further clarified that school administrators must address the management of teacher effectiveness through evaluation and supervision as a collegial process while at the same time facilitating professional development that provides opportunities for teacher trust and commitment to growth around changing practices. These authors advocate for an integrated model to instructional supervision that prioritizes an open, trusting, and enabling organizational environment built around professional learning. Likewise, Schon's (1988) instructional supervision model emphasized collegial classroom observations with specific focus upon collaborative sharing and reflective teaching for improved student-learning.

More recently, Knapp, Copland, Honig, Plecki, and Portin (2010) from the Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy at the University of Washington found an overarching set of

leadership practices that contributed to learning improvement for both teachers and students in urban systems. This multi-strand study, funded by The Wallace Foundation, found that learning focused leadership emphasized the "shared work and commitments that shape the direction of a school or district and their learning improvement agendas, and that engage effort and energy in pursuit of those agendas" (Knapp et al., 2010, p. 4). These researchers paid special attention to the instructional leadership provided by school administrators to guide, direct, or support teachers working to increase their professional skills and knowledge in order to improve their students' learning success.

As highlighted, the theoretical and empirical research regarding human resource needs, teacher effectiveness, and school improvement priorities cluster into four leadership constructs for the school administrator as both the instructional supervisor and evaluator:

- Instructional Leadership focuses upon the school administrator providing vision around instructional goals and priorities, understanding how students learn, tracking student progress, setting high standards for students and teachers, and communicating teaching/learning expectations through formative and summative evaluation. Instructional leadership has its empirical beginnings in effective school research (Edmonds, 1979) as the lead correlate of effective urban schools. Instructional leadership is focused upon teaching and learning, being a strong instructional resource to teachers, and an active participant and leader in teacher learning and development. Robinson, Lloyd, and Rowe (2008) found through a meta-analysis of instructional leadership and transformational leadership that instructional leadership practices had three to four times the effect on student outcomes as compared to transformational leadership. The second meta-analysis found strong effects for specific dimensions of instructional leadership that included promoting and participating in teacher learning and development and moderate effects for goal-setting and planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and the curriculum.

- Inclusive Leadership focuses upon the school administrator committing to shared decision-making and fostering a professional community in the school through actual work and interactive conversations with teachers (Scribner, Sawyer, Watson, & Myers, 2007; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001) by developing talking strategies that promote reflection such as (a) making suggestions, (b) giving feedback, (c) modeling, (d) using inquiry and soliciting advice and opinions, and (e) giving praise (Blase & Blase, 1999). Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2001) conceptualized distributed leadership as being situated in many different formal and informal structures and activities through multiple interactions such as school leadership and teacher teams via opportunities to

interact in a purposeful manner around student-learning needs. Scribner, Sawyer, Watson, and Myers (2007) study confirmed Spillane's (2001) research, while specifically looking at the individual group's purpose for meeting from both a social and a situational perspective and the role of the school administrator within the group. Blase and Blase's (1999) study directly examined teachers' perspectives of school administrators' everyday instructional practices that influence teachers' classroom work. Smylie, Wenzel, and Fendt's (2003) research concluded, "there really is no debate. Principals played a 'make or break' role in promoting and achieving school development [capacity]" (p. 155).

- School Administrator-Teacher Trust is organized around the school administrator caring about the teachers and their professional development, being trustworthy, respectful, and displaying confidence in teacher's ability to improve, and placing the needs of students first in school administrators' work. Bryk and Schneider (2003) have used both quantitative and qualitative approaches to investigate trust in schools through extensive data collection throughout the Chicago Public Schools as well as longitudinal case studies in 12 Chicago elementary schools and found that "schools with high trust were much more likely to demonstrate marked improvements in students learning" (p. 43). Collegial trust develops through (a) teachers' willingness and effort to innovate in the midst of change, (b) problem-solving with colleagues, (c) social controls within teacher teams, and (d) teacher commitment to the organization (Bryk & Schneider, 1996, 2002, 2003). Moreover, Youngs and King (2002) concluded that an important capacity-building strategy for school administrators is promoting trust between teachers.

- School Administrator Supported Change is centered on the school administrator providing ongoing support and encouragement for teachers to take risks and try new instructional methods, being an effective manager, being willing to make changes, providing teachers with necessary materials, and addressing and removing, if needed, poorly performing teachers. Byrk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, and Easton (2010) affirmed that school administrator leadership, as the driver for improvement, includes three dimensions of leadership: (a) the managerial dimension focuses upon effective organization of the day-to-day school responsibilities, (b) the instructional dimension develops through initiatives aimed at the school's professional capacity and quality of instructional core; and (c) the inclusive-facilitative dimension where the school administrator nurtures individual agency and builds collective capacity to support fundamental change. Fullan (2001) further clarifies the importance of the school administrator's role in the change process if school administrators "appreciate the implementation dip" (p. 40) within a high accountability process by providing a sense of purpose while simultaneously providing inspiration and resources to keep teachers moving forward.

These four leadership constructs are further described in the following paragraphs. The literature aligns essential supports of school improvement and teacher effectiveness priorities with individual leadership constructs.

Instructional leadership construct. Instructional leadership is the foundational leadership construct. School administrators must be knowledgeable about instruction, student achievement, and how students learn; be able to support discussion and analysis of curriculum; and encourage the use of a variety of instructional resources, materials, and professional supports (Elmore, Peterson, & McCarthey, 1996; Blase & Kirby, 1992; Sebring et al., 1995). Instructional leaders in their schools even could be seen as having a moral purpose to direct a vision where the school functions for all children and youth by developing strong commitments to important things and modeling and supporting them continuously (Sergiovanni, 1996).

Instructional leadership as a construct focuses upon creating, modeling, and implementing goals developed around a vision of how the "organization and operation of schools could (and should) be restructured to enhance students' engagement with school and improve their learning outcomes" (Bryk et al., 2010, p. 46). Priorities of this leadership construct include a shared vision between the school administrator and staff for school improvement, as well as ways to measure student academic progress, and in turn set high expectations for professional practice for improving student-learning.

The instructional leader as both the instructional supervisor and evaluator uses the agreed upon standards-based teaching practices to guide and measure teacher effectiveness. These measures include two types of data: (a) observation-based evidence of what the teacher is doing/saying when teaching the curriculum and how students are responding (Danielson, 2007, 2008); and (b) student outcome-based evidence derived from standardized tests, student work, and curriculum-based measures (BMGF, 2010; Duncan, 2009; Stanton & Matsko, 2010). In addition, the school administrator supports the evaluation process through ongoing feedback and time to talk about teaching. This type of professional learning system establishes common

language for describing effective teaching while encouraging teachers to be flexible when trying to achieve their learning goals with students (Blase & Blase, 1999; 2002; Blase & Kirby, 1992; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Kimball, 2002; Leithwood et al., 2010).

Individualization of each teacher's professional growth plan is critical so that there is a balance between required learning experiences, often linked directly with the district and/or school improvement goals, as well as flexible learning opportunities that could include self-study, college credit work, on-site workshops, and ongoing professional teaming. A teacher-evaluation system committed to maximizing professional growth should include a focused approach to conversations about professional practice (Fenwick, 2001; Danielson & McGreal, 2000). The evaluation process for both non-tenured and tenured teachers should not be cast in an "either/or" context as a helping or managerial function. Both formative supervision and summative evaluation need to focus upon professional feedback data, teacher improvement goals, and review of student achievement as key indicators of ongoing school and district professional priorities (Berube & Dexter, 2006).

Inclusive or shared leadership construct. Inclusive leadership needs to be able to facilitate collective responsibility for staff to solve problems and generate small wins for continuous learning advancement. Authority of leadership should not be confined to the formal leader but instead must be exerted throughout the organization by multiple stakeholders (Marks & Printy, 2003; Spillane et al., 2001). Leadership needs to be seen as something that flows through the organization and is the right and responsibility of all members of the learning system (Blase & Blase, 2002; Marks & Louis, 1999).

By organizing the professional learning environment through a human resource frame that prioritizes individual and collective participation, shared decision-making becomes a taken-

for-granted component of the school system that leads to improved, inclusive supervision when addressing challenging educational mandates such as evaluation procedures and ratings based upon defined teaching practices and student value-added data (Glickman et al., 2010; Pajak, 1989). The inclusive school administrator supports broad leadership networks with multiple stakeholders that include parents, community members, diverse staff members, to dialogue about challenging instructional priorities and to assume leadership in determining best ways to address and support the learning community's work (Argyris, 1970; Argyris & Schon, 1978; Knapp et al., 2010; Sebring et al., 2006).

Professional community refers to close relationships among teachers and leaders, which are focused upon student-learning improvement and coupled with collaborative norms, communication strategies, and shared work around student-learning (Scribner et al., 2007). Ongoing collaboration fosters sharing of expertise to address the core priorities of instructional practice. By engaging in ongoing reflective dialogue, staff deepens their collective wisdom and shared responsibility toward students (Bryk et al., 1999; Leithwood et al., 2010). The leadership role in an inclusive professional community changes to one in which the faculty is enlisted to share critical decisions around instruction and assessment strategies and results as well as key professional learning priorities, in which leaders pose questions rather than impose solutions, and where school administrators and the school leadership team share the responsibility for creating an environment in which teachers can continually grow and learn together (Bryk et al., 2002; Rusch, 2005; Sergiovianni, 1996; Scribner et al., 2007).

School leadership teams are involved regularly in making decisions around the school improvement process. This critical leadership work includes making decisions regarding allocation of budget, resources, and professional learning priorities. School administrators enlist

faculty members in the school's decision-making processes and empower them to act while providing the staff with the information, training, and parameters to make good decisions (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Ryan et al., 1997; Scribner et al., 1999). Collaboration does not necessarily equate with teams becoming more creative and innovative. In fact, team time could become "group think," which ultimately limits divergent thinking (Janis, 1971). Establishing and attending to team norms, defining instructional and learning purposes for professional work, and developing problem-solving processes are structures of inclusive leadership that must be attended to and not take for granted by the school administrator (Scribner et al., 2007).

School administrator-teacher trust leadership construct. A culture of cooperation and trust between the school administrator and teachers must exist before effectively utilizing teacher-evaluation to link to teaching practices regarding student-learning. During this time of high-stakes testing and increasing teaching accountability, the relationship between levels of the school system often are strained. The school administrator must foster a culture of shared leadership and professional commitment with all stakeholders in the school community for successful school-wide learning improvement while implementing complex change (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008).

Inherent in collaborative, trusting relationships is an element of commitment, defined by Chhuon, Gilkey, Gonzalez, Daly, and Chrispeels (2008) as "one's willingness to participate in a relationship that involves being vulnerable to another person" (p. 228). Facets of trust include risk, communication, benevolence, reliability, competence, integrity, openness, and respect (Daly & Chrispeels, 2005). Trust building around teacher-evaluation requires that teacher effectiveness criteria be clearly understood by all staff who ultimately will be measured by it, teacher input and shared conversation around observed teaching practices, the school administrator being

knowledgeable about instruction and core curriculum in order to provide valid feedback and professional recommendation, and the use of multiple measures over multiple time periods in order to come to a final rating decision (Ashby & Krug, 1998; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009).

Aligned to professional dialogue is the practice of reflective inquiry. At the heart of educational reflection is the belief that teachers, given opportunities to carefully consider their work, possess the necessary knowledge to improve their practice (Bryk et al., 2002; Danielson, 1996; Rusch, 2005). Reflection is the process through which educators tap into this knowledge. Reflection is an element in all inquiry-focused professional learning, such as action research, examining student work, classroom observation and feedback, and small group or individual thought processing (Glickman et al., 2010; Gordon, 1997; Schon, 1988).

School administrator support for change leadership construct. Essential to school administrators' and staffs' shared work is a set of values and beliefs that reflect the responsibility to change due to the need to innovate for increased student-learning. The act of shared responsibility for teaching and learning between the school administrator and teachers is in sharp contrast to imposed change that too often dominates highly regulated urban schools (Knapp, et al., 2010; Rowan, 1990). Leadership is the driver of change and more specifically, school administrators are the catalytic agents for systemic improvement (Bryk et al., 2010; Leithwood et al., 2010).

School administrator support for change as a leadership construct is the facilitating construct to the three other leadership constructs. This leadership construct focuses upon creating shared capacity to move teacher-evaluation away from compliancy to commitment around teacher quality assurance and growth. School administrator support for change is defined as

encouraging teachers to take risks and try new instructional methods as well as addressing poor teaching performance (Bryk et al., 2010).

This leadership construct creates capacity to interweave the essential supports of school improvement by enhancing the faculty's professional capacities for developing and sustaining an engaging environment around effective learning practices and promoting a continuous improvement ethos across the professional community (Sebring et al., 1995). Comprehensive school improvement focused upon professional skill improvement requires sustained cooperative effort among all adults in a school—administrators, teachers, parents, and local community members. The overall quality of the basic social relationships among these various partners is key to initiating meaningful professional change and sustaining it over time (Bryk et al., 2002).

In education systems committed to complex work around professional learning, leadership finds ways for non-tenured and tenured teachers to identify aspects of their practice to be improved and work together to make change happen (Arygis & Schon, 1978; Bryk et al., 2010; Fenwick, 2001). School leaders who organize onsite training recognize teachers as professional resources and create learning structures so that all teachers have access to available human and fiscal resources (DiPaola & Hoy, 2007; Glickman et al., 2010). These structures also allow teachers to personalize their professional learning needs through study groups, instructional rounds, external site visits, and professional learning conversations centered on the design and implementation of challenging content standards or instructional practices (Danielson, 2007; McGregor, 1957). Fenwick (2001) stated, "supervision that supports teacher learning must also somehow navigate between teacher needs for autonomy and flexibility and public demands for professional accountability and measurable competency" (p. 260). The professionalism of teaching requires that practitioners, both school administrators and teachers,

be given the time and resources to help them reflect upon, argue about, discuss, and work individually and collectively toward ongoing school improvement (Bernauer, 2002; Argyris & Schon, 1978).

School administrators also need to provide clear procedures and supports for teachers who are defined as ineffective. The school administrator and marginal teacher must work together to clearly define areas for instructional or professional improvement, develop a professional goal plan to address the targeted need(s), and determine intensive support to assist the teacher for improving the identified area of weakness (Danielson & McGreal, 2000).

The school administrator ultimately must be the teacher-evaluation "line in the sand" and take legal remediation steps and recommend dismissal if the teacher's practice is confirmed as unsatisfactory (PERA, 2010). The school administrator's role as a catalyst for change should be embedded into a listening-learning-responding loop ritual focused on teacher-evaluation data, both student achievement and teaching practices, that leads to professional growth goals and doable next steps (Blase & Blase, 1999; Danielson, 2007; Fenwick, 2001).

School administrators' work in each of the four leadership constructs (instructional leadership, inclusive leadership, school administrator-teacher trust, school administrator support for change) will be tested in relationship to his or her work in the district's new teacher-evaluation process based upon the study's three hypotheses:

- School administrators' perceptions of their work will differ by school improvement and teacher-evaluation based upon school administrator demographics.
- School administrators' perceptions of their work will differ by school improvement and teacher-evaluation based upon school organizational context.
- School administrators that reported strong affinity to leadership constructs will be associated with higher perceived levels of implementation of teacher-evaluation process. However, some leadership constructs will be more important than others

and will warrant deeper study of relationships between constructs and perceived higher quality of implementation of teacher-evaluation.

These hypotheses indicate the expected relationships, all things being equal. Literature focused upon the school organizational variables (i.e., school level, school size, student mobility) that will be used to test the relationship between school administrators' work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation will be described next.

School organizational context. The complex organization of schools due to scheduling and hierarchical controls, variety of instructional and social services, and changing enrollments was considered when studying the complex work of school administrators while implementing teacher-evaluation and school improvement. In regard to school size, small schools have been found to provide more engaging work environments for both adults and students (Lee, Bryk, & Smith, 1993). Smaller schools were found to have fewer programs to organize and implement, which enabled staff to work more closely together and communicate more effectively (Bryk et al., 1999). Although the size or level of school did not have a significant impact on the quality of teaching practice in classrooms, both size (smaller vs. larger) and level (elementary vs. secondary) were shown to have a direct effect on the teachers' overall satisfaction and happiness with teaching as a profession (Adams, Kimble, & Marlin, 1970).

More recently, Leithwood and Jantzi (2009) reviewed 57 post-1990 empirical studies focused upon school size effects and aligned student and organizational outcomes. The review of school size effect research revealed at both elementary and secondary levels, smaller schools benefit the academic achievement of their students. School size recommendations from this review provided that schools serving predominately economically and socially disadvantaged students should be limited to 300 students at elementary levels and 600 students at secondary levels. Schools that predominately serve economically or socially heterogeneous or relatively

advantaged students should limit school size to approximately 500 students at elementary levels and 1000 at secondary levels. In general, school size evidence suggests that social relations are generally more positive at the high school level in smaller schools (Lee et al., 1993) but an important distinction needs to be made in school size research. Lee and Loeb (2000) found that small schools were more favorable for student-learning when the school was small by design instead of by default. Small schools by design are often staffed by innovative faculty and are often schools of choice. The large majority of small U.S. high schools are small by default and located in rural areas with declining populations which provides specific educational curriculum and staffing challenges (Lee & Loeb, 2000).

Lubienski et al., (2008) found when looking at student achievement and critical school factors that smaller class size, but not smaller school size, was significantly correlated with student math achievement. Conversely, Gottfredson and DePietro (2011) found in high-need schools that reducing the ratio of students to teachers and reducing the number of different students taught by the average teacher supported student efficacy but reducing the size of the school had no impact on student efficacy or feelings of victimization by the students.

High student mobility, defined for this study to be greater than 20%, challenges the school administrator in developing strong social capital relationships with teachers due to high enrollment instability. Social capital formation is based upon dense, sustained social interactions. When teachers are consistently forming new social relationships with students, time and energy is taken from teachers forming/strengthening social and instructional relationships with their colleagues or with their school administrator (Bryk et al., 2010).

An analysis of student mobility on educational achievement found that students with 20% or higher mobility had an average learning performance substantially below the average learning

performance of non-mobile students. Highly mobile students, often due to lower average achievement than their non-mobile counter parts, required additional school services by staff that ranged from student enrollment, learning assessments, specialized learning and behavioral resources, access to counseling services, and multiple support services (Demie, 2010; Nakagawa, Stafford, Fisher, & Matthews, 2002). Student mobility, along with faculty turnover rate, staff and student absenteeism, and student suspension, was a school factor that influenced staff perceptions and commitment to the school environment (Bevans, Bradshaw, Miech, & Leaf, 2007).

A Conceptual Framework of School Administrators' Work in Teacher Effectiveness

The conceptual framework derived from the literature, teacher quality policy, human resource theory, and research variables is illustrated in Figure 2. The conceptual framework drew upon the foundational aspects of the research study: school administrators' leadership work in school improvement, teacher-evaluation as an external policy, and mitigating factors in the school's organizational context.

As illustrated in the diagram, school administrators' work in leadership was the focus of the study and centered in the middle of the framework. Within the leadership framework, the four constructs of school administrators' leadership work (i.e., instructional leadership, inclusive leadership, school administrator-teacher trust, school administrator supported change) are represented. As illustrated by the school administrator supported change triangle, part of school administrators' work is to push in change, in this case the district teacher-evaluation process, into the school administrators' leadership work through school improvement priorities embedded in the school's organizational context. Leadership constructs are not confined to specific places

within the frame but flow throughout the school administrators' priority work. Instructional leadership is represented with enlarged, bold print as the priority school leadership construct.

School administrators' work is framed on the top by the essential supports of school improvement (i.e., leadership as a catalyst for change, parent-community ties, professional capacity, student-centered learning environment, ambitious instruction) which symbolize the essential aspects of school improvement that school administrators need to address within their priority school leadership work. The variables that influence school administrators' work is framed at the bottom by the school administrator demographics (i.e., school administrator experience, number of years of teaching, number of years as school administrator, gender, educational degree) and the school's organizational context (i.e., school level, school size, student mobility). Both school administrator demographics and school organizational context is predicted to influence the school administrators' leadership work.

The figure also shows the district teacher-evaluation process being directly linked to the school leadership through a solid arrow between district teacher accountability policy, and school administrators' work. The dashed line between district accountability policy and national/state teacher quality policy represents the external imposed accountability measures.

As highlighted in Figure 2, national and state teacher quality policy assumes that the teacher-evaluation process will increase teacher effectiveness and, therefore, enhance student achievement (Duncan, 2009; NCCTQ, 2009; PERA, 2010; TNTP, 2009). This assumption, while outside the scope of this study, is modeled through a solid arrow symbolizing a direct link from school administrators' leadership work to teacher effectiveness and a dotted arrow symbolizing an indirect link from school administrators' leadership work to student achievement.

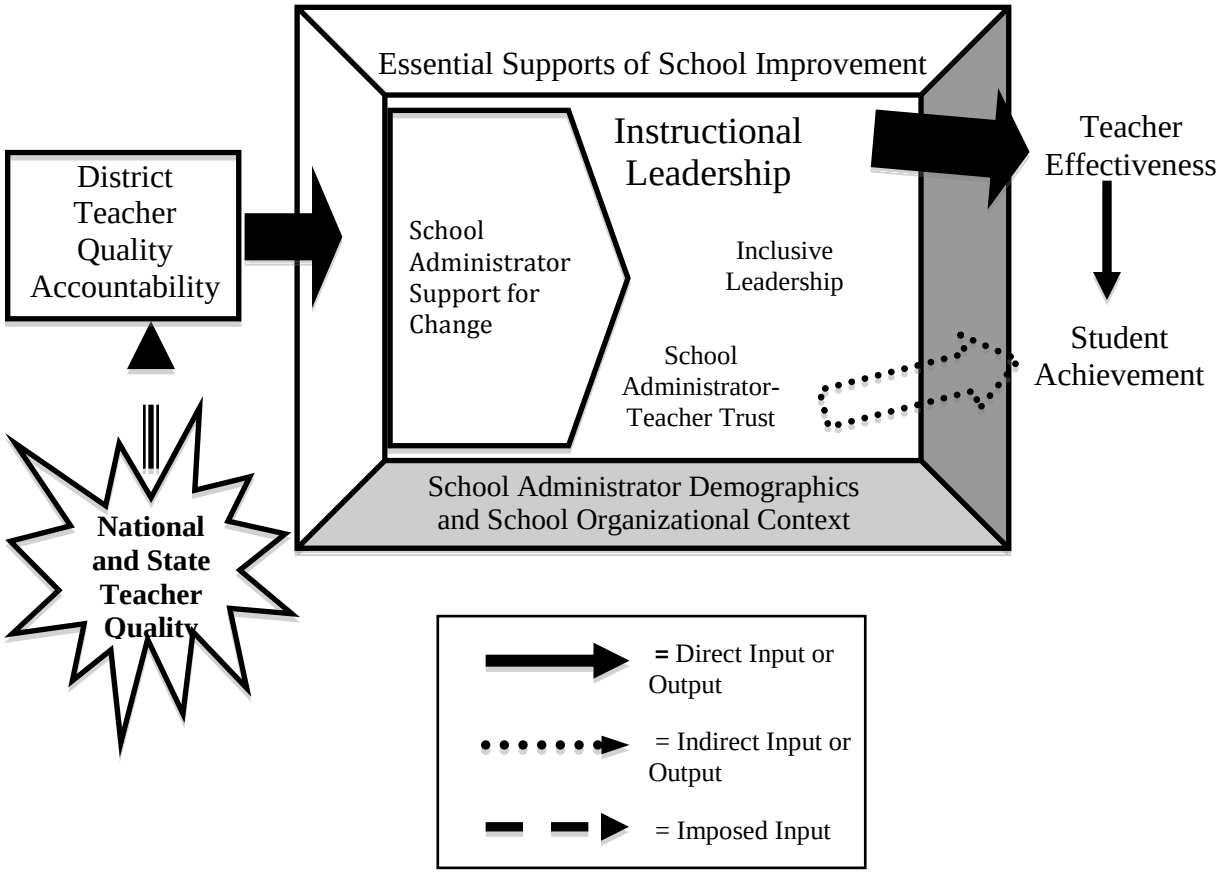

Figure 2. School administrators' leadership work in the school improvement framework.

As introduced previously in this chapter, the analysis for this study was guided by three hypotheses based on the conceptual framework, literature review, human resource theory, and policy assumptions. The first hypothesis provides that school administrators' work will differ by school improvement and teacher-evaluation based upon individual school administrator background characteristics (i.e., last job before becoming a school administrator, total number of years of teaching, total years of experience as a school administrator, total years in current position, gender, level of education). In the conceptual framework, this prediction is represented by the leadership construct, school administrator supported change, pushing into the other school administrators' constructs.

Another prediction is that school administrators' perceptions of their work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation will differ based upon the school organizational context (i.e., level of school, size of school, student mobility). In the conceptual framework, this prediction is represented by the organizational context being on the foundational side of the school improvement framework.

Finally, based upon previous research and the conceptual framework, another prediction is that all four areas of leadership will be associated with higher perceived levels of implementation of the teacher-evaluation process, although some leadership areas will be perceived to be more important than others based upon school organizational context. Chapter 4 returns to these predictions to discuss the quantitative and qualitative findings of the study as well as the extent to which the data from this study supported or refuted these predictions. Chapter 5 returns to the conceptual framework to visually describe the findings and implications of this research study.

Chapter 3

Methodology

The extensive literature and conceptual framework described in Chapter 2 provided foundational support for this sequential, two phase, mixed-method study focused upon understanding the relationship between school administrators' work when implementing teacher-evaluation and leading school improvement, and the extent to which school administrators' leadership work in school improvement was influenced by the implementation of the teacher-evaluation process. An explanatory design with follow-up explanations model (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007) was selected due to this study's qualitative data being used to clarify or extend initial quantitative findings that address the study's research questions and hypotheses (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003). Ultimately the "numbers and tables" will not sharpen understanding of school administrators' "lived experiences" in school improvement and teacher-evaluation unless the structured survey is complemented by listening with sensitivity to school administrators' thinking about this challenging yet critical leadership work (Small, 2009).

Chapter 3 begins by providing a description of the school district that was selected for this study. The district description also includes the steps that were taken by Riverton Unit School District when developing the district's new teacher-evaluation process, in order to situate the context of the school administrators' work in both school improvement and the teacher-evaluation process. This study's quantitative measure was a questionnaire focused upon school administrators' work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation, and the qualititive measure, a semi-structured interview protocol, gathered data from identified "extreme case" and homogeneous school administrators who were asked to personalize quantitative issues of interest based upon their administrative "lived experiences" in both school improvement and teacher-

evaluation. These research measures were embedded into two, sequential phases of the explanatory mixed-method study. The chapter concludes with an examination of the methodology used in both Phase 1 and II of this research study.

The Riverton Unit School District Context

Riverton Unit School District is a large, unit school district in Illinois and the site of the research study. This Illinois district is one of the state's largest districts with a student population of 30,000+ students, organized in preschool-elementary, middle, and high school configurations, with a majority of the students being Hispanic and Caucasian, and the minority being Asian and African American. Riverton is considered to be a large geographical district, covering over 90 square miles, with multiple, diverse community populations coming together into one, large unit educational system. Due to this study focusing upon one school district in Illinois, Riverton Unit School District provided an ideal research site in which to test the study's three hypotheses due to having numerous school administrators with varying background characteristics implementing the district's new teacher-evaluation process in schools with different organizational context.

As previewed in Chapter 2, Riverton District school administrators' leadership work easily could be seen by an outsider as complex, fragmented, and possibly overwhelming. Based upon my review of the 2010-11 web-based school board presentations and district improvement plan accomplishments, the school administrators' work and priorities during the 2010-11 school year included the following: (a) school-level implementation of a new secondary math curriculum and K-12 literacy frameworks, textbooks, and support resources; (b) dual-language implementation; (c) district-wide focus upon increased academic achievement for English Language Learners (ELLs); (d) Response to Intervention (RtI) differentiated strategies for

academic and social learning programs; (e) web-based, student assessment data dashboards for all students; (f) increased support for African American education; (g) enhanced family and community engagement; and (h) strategies for expanding Advanced Placement (AP) courses; (i) increasing attendance at the high school level. Additional managerial school administrator responsibilities included (a) managing increasing student enrollment and decreasing school budgets, (b) implementing revised school safety reports and student code of conduct, (c) coordinating facility rentals and commercial advertising inside school property, and (d) utilizing administrative communication strategies for stressful times. In addition to these priority school improvement and managerial administrative responsibilities, each school administrator was given the lead responsibility for implementing the district's new teacher-evaluation process in order to support a critical part of the district's school improvement strategy—ensuring effective teaching.

Development of the Riverton teacher-evaluation process.

The Riverton Unit School District teacher-evaluation process was developed by the district management and union leadership through a series of "starts and stops" over a 10-year period. The district teacher-evaluation plan and supporting documents were available for review through the district office and website. These documents were reviewed and examined for relevant information to help develop context for school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation, and subsequentially in school improvement. Field notes were taken while examining the documents. Reviewed teacher-evaluation documents included: (a) the finalized teacher-evaluation policy and evaluation plan, (b) the finalized teacher-evaluation tools, and (c) copies of

monthly school administrators' professional development outlines and training materials for teacher-evaluation and improvement.

During the early 1990s, labor strife brought forward the shared need for Riverton's district management and union leadership to collaboratively work toward improved staff working conditions. In 1996, the first attempt at working together focused upon development of a teacher mentoring program as a pipeline to teacher induction and evaluation. During this same year, the district leadership conducted a book study based upon *Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching* (Danielson, 1996).

In the early 2000s, the district committed to revamping the teacher-evaluation tool to include Danielson's *Framework for Teaching* standards and rubrics. Although the development of the new teacher-evaluation process stalled, the district teacher mentor program adopted the *Framework for Teaching* as their core teaching standards. Several years later, the district management and union leadership renewed their shared work around teacher-evaluation by writing specific contract language for the new evaluation tool, adding a district-level teacher leader position, and training all school administration with the new framework-based teacher-evaluation tool, only subsequentially to have Riverton's union membership reject the new teacher-evaluation contract language and plan.

Two years later, the district brought in external consultants to help facilitate collective bargaining language and develop Riverton's Teacher-evaluation Plan (TEP), based upon the *Framework for Teaching* (Danielson, 2007). The TEP had three overarching purposes: (a) to support and focus professional growth and development of distinguished teaching practices, (b) to unify teachers and administration in maximizing student-learning, and (c) to ensure a quality

professional staff. This time, union membership ratified the comprehensive bargaining agreement, which included TEP.

During the next four years, a comprehensive TEP strategy was implemented that included phasing TEP into all district schools (with 96% of teachers using TEP by 2010-2011), adding more district-level teacher leader positions, enhancing teacher mentoring and coaching support for new and veteran teachers, mandating school administrator TEP trainings (SATEP), which included differentiated summer and school year professional learning sessions, and increasing district teacher effectiveness initiatives (i.e., teacher mentor program, TEP, SATEP, national teacher board certification, partnerships with higher education).

Explanatory Mixed-methods Approach through Two Sequential Phases

This mixed-method study was implemented through a explanatory mixed-methods approach with the questionnaire being used as the lead Phase 1 data tool and Phase 2 being comprised of interviews to explain significant (or nonsignificant), atypical, or surprising results from the Phase 1 data (Morse, 1991). The explanatory mixed-methods approach advocated for using both quantitative data, which makes generalizations, and qualitative data, which extends issues of interest in order to personalize findings of the quantitative data. Stecher and Borko (2002) suggested that using mixed-method research supports movement away from the past tradition of using islolated questionnaire data to explain the success or failure of imposed reform. The overarching research question was: What is the relationship between school administrators' work in school improvement and the school administrators' perception of the implementation of the teacher-evaluation process, and how does this relationship influence school administrators'

leadership work? The quantative and qualitative sub-research questions that guided this mixed-methods study included:

Phase 1 Quantitative Research Questions

1. Do school administrators' work differ in school improvement based upon individual school administrator demographics?
2. Do school administrators' work differ in teacher-evaluation based upon individual school administrator demographics?
3. Do school administrators' work differ in school improvement based upon school characteristics?
4. Do school administrators' work differ in teacher-evaluation based upon school characteristics?
5. How are school administrators' perceptions of implementation of teacher-evaluation at their own school related to their perceptions of their work in school improvement as measured by leadership constructs (four leadership constructs based upon five essential supports for school improvement)?

Phase 2 Qualitative Research Question

6. How do school administrators' reflections on their leadership work in both school improvement and teacher-evaluation illuminate and extend understanding of emerging findings in Phase 1?

Phase 1 School Administrators' Work Questionnaire

The *Improving Chicago Schools: Principals' Perspective Questionnaire* (referenced in this study as *Improving Chicago Schools Questionnaire*) was adapted in order to measure school administrators' perceptions of their work in school improvement (Bryk et al., 1999; Bryk et al., 2010) and teacher-evaluation (Sartain et al., 2010). The *Improving Chicago Schools Questionnaire* was a continuation of the *Charting Reform Questionnaire* the Consortium on Chicago School Research (CCSR) had utilized since 1991. The updated questionnaire moved the focus away from governance reform toward school development and improvement. The updated

questionnaire was developed under the guidance of Mark Smylie, Educational Policy Studies Chair at the University of Illinois–Chicago, and CCSR researchers. The updated questionnaire included past validated CCSR questionnaire items and additional questionnaire items from other nationally validated questionnaires. The final draft of the *Improving Chicago Schools Questionnaire* was reviewed for content validity and logistics by Chicago Public School (CPS) teachers, school administrators, and central office staff, and then approved by the CCSR Steering Committee (i.e., faculty from local universities, research staff from Chicago Teachers Union, researchers in education advocacy groups, North Central Regional Eduational Laboratory staff, Illinois State Board of Education staff) and the Constituent Advisory Board (i.e., CPS teachers, school administrators, parents, civic and political leaders). The result was three updated student questionnaires, two teacher questionnaires, and one principal questionnaire focused upon the essential aspects of school improvement and organizational and political features of schools (Sebring et al., 2006).

The *Improving Chicago's Schools Questionnaires* were developed to investigate key elements of school organization, parent involvement, and the relationship between community resources and student-learning. Specifically, the school administrator questionnaire items addressed the organizational structure of schools, human resources in schools, instructional quality, social support for learning, parent involvement and community resources, and student experiences and attitude toward schooling (Nagaoka, 2000).

All *Improving Chicago Schools Questionnaires* (1997, 2005, 2007, 2009) used a Rasch model analysis to produce an interval scale with a set of carefully selected questionnaire items to determine *item difficulties* and *person measures* (Wright & Masters, 1982). A questionnaire item was arranged on the scale according to how likely it would be endorsed (*item difficulty)*. Items

then were used to define the measure's scale, and people then were placed on the scale based on their reponses to the items in the measure (*person measure).* The scale units are logits (log odds units), which are linear and suitable for use in simple statistical procedures.

The item clusters contained several related items, usually between four and eight, that appeared to conceptually cohere. The final determinant for which items were preserved in each questionnaire was based upon conceptual coherence as well as the statistical fit of the group of items. The "fit" statistics were calculated by taking the mean squared deviations of the difference between the expected values and the observed values. Fit statistics have an expected value of 1.0. Items with fit statistics substantially greater than 1.0 were determined to not be a "good fit" and were not included in that specific item cluster but could be utilized in other parts of the questionnaire if the item "fit" was better. The school level means included in the *Improving Chicago Schools Questionnaire* data sets were aggregates of individual responses that had been weighted by the inverse of the standard error. Individual reponses that were less reliable or had missing data received less weight, whereas more reliable responses received a greater weight in creating a school average of the measure (Nagaoka, 2000).

The questionnaire in this study, *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* (Appendix A), utilized the school improvement sections of the 2007 *Improving Chicago's Schools Principal Questionnaire* to develop the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* leadership constructs. The sections used from the 2007 *Improving Chicago's Schools Principal Questionnaire* were one section from Leadership and Governance, two sections from Work of the Principal, three sections from Human Resources, two sections from Social Trust and Respect, and four sections from Background Information (CCSR, 2007). The 2009 *Improving Chicago's Schools Principal Questionnaire* teacher-evaluation construct (CCSR, 2009) was used in its entirety in the teacher-

evaluation section of the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire*. Individual CCSR questionnaire items were re-clustered for use in the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* based upon conceptual coherence to the four different leadership constructs—instructional leadership, inclusive leadership, school administrator-teacher trust, and school administrator support for change (CCSR, 2007; Finnigan, 2010), as well as the teacher-evaluation construct (CCSR, 2009).

Defining independent and dependent variables. The variables used in the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* included school administrator demographics, school characteristics, and school administrators' work in both leadership constructs and teacher-evaluation. Table 1 lists these variables. The procedure for determining each variable will be described in the following paragraphs.

Table 1

School Administrators' Work Questionnaire Variable and Construct Descriptions

Construct description	Variable description
School administrator demographics	
School Administrator Experience	Categorical
Number of Years of Teaching	Continuous
Number of Years as School Administrator	Continuous
Gender	Categorical
Educational Degree	Categorical
School organizational context	
School Level	Categorical
School Size	Categorical
Student Mobility	Categorical
Constructs	
Instructional Leadership	Continuous
Inclusive Leadership	Continuous
School Administrator-Teacher Trust	Continuous
School Administrator Support for Change	Continuous
Teacher-evaluation	Continuous

Independent variables—school administrator demographics. School administrator demographics were used as independent variables and included school administrator experience, teaching experience, gender, and education level. These variables were included because of their potential association with school administrators' work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation. School administrators' work and priorities will likely vary based upon number of years as a school administrator, number of years as a teacher, level of education attained, and their gender. The following section describes the variables, including the item-response categories in the questionnaire.

- School administrator experience: School administrators were asked where they last worked before becoming a school administrator of this school: this school, a rural public school, district/region/area administrator, central office, a suburban school, another district school, a private school, other (specify). Due to data collection error, this school administrator demographic variable was not used in the final analysis of the data.

- Total number of years teaching: School administrators were asked for their total years of teaching before becoming a school administrator: none, 1 to 5 years, 6 to 10 years, 11 to 15 years, 16 to 20 years, more than 20 years (specify). Based upon the response distribution of number of years of teaching by the school administrators, this variable's results were condensed into the following categories: 1 to 10 years, 11-20 years, and more than 20 years teaching experience.

- Total number of years of experience as school administrator/in current position: Number of years (specify number of years for both experience items). Based upon the response distribution of number of years of experience as a school administrator, this variable's results were organized into the following categories: five or less years of experience, more than five years of experiences.

- Gender: School administrators were asked if they were: male, female (specify).

- Level of education: School administrators were asked the highest degree they had earned: bachelor's degree, master's degree, master's + 15, master's + 30, Master's + 45, doctorate (specify). Due to data collection error, this school administrator demographic variable was not used in the final analysis of the data.

Independent variables—school characteristics. The questionnaire also included three independent school characteristic variables indicating school level, school size, and student

mobility. Like the school administrator demographic variables, school-level characterstics were included because of the potential association with school administrators' leadership work and priorities in teacher-evaluation and school improvement.

- School level: School administrators were asked the level of their school: elementary, middle school, high school, other. These school level variables were aligned with Riverton Unit School District school building levels and were common labels for school building levels in Illinois and other states.

- School size: School administrators were asked the number of students in their school: 350 or less students, between 351–800 students, more than 800 students. Riverton Unit School District's schools had student enrollment ranging from less than 100 students to over 2000 students.

- Student mobility: School administrators were asked the student mobility of their school: Less than 20%, 20% or higher. The Illinois State Board of Education defines high student mobility as 20%+. Riverton Unit School District's student mobility ranged from schools with less than 10% mobility to schools with greater than 50% mobility.

Dependent variables—four leadership constructs. The four leadership constructs had a group mean for each leadership construct calculated and included in the school administrator demographics or school characteristics. The four leadership constructs described different areas of school administrator leadership when leading school improvement as discussed in Chapter 2. The *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* was organized into four working leadership concepts of practice that included:

- Instructional leadership, which focused upon the school administrator providing vision around instructional priorities, understanding how students learn, tracking student progress, setting high standards for students and teachers, and communicating teaching/learning expectations through the formative and summative teacher-evaluation process. Examples of questionnaire items that were included were "Indicate the amount of work you do in observing the instruction of individual teachers" or "Indicate the extent to which helping teachers carefully track student academic progress is a priority in your administrative work."

- Inclusive leadership, which addressed the school administrator's commitment to shared decision-making and fostering a professional community in the school included questionnaire items such as "Indicate the amount of work you do in supporting teachers

in helping each other to do their best" or "Indicate the extent to which working to create a sense of community in the school is a priority in your administrative work."

- School administrator-teacher trust, which supported the school administrator caring about the teachers and their professional development, being trustworthy, respectful, and displaying confidence in teachers' ability to improve, and placing the needs of the staff and students first in school administrators' work included questionnaire items such as "Indicate the amount of work you do in looking out for the personal welfare of teachers" or "Indicate the extent to which making it 'ok' for staff members to discuss feelings, worries, and frustrations with me is a priority in your administrative work."

- School administrator supported change, which centered on the school administrator providing ongoing support and encouragement for teachers to take risks and try new instructional methods, being willing to make changes, providing teachers with necessary materials, being an effective manager, and addressing and removing, if needed, poorly performing teachers included questionnaire items such as "Indicate the amount of work you do in encouraging teachers who are not effective to leave" or "Indicate the extent to which the supporting and encouraging teachers to take risks is a priority in your administrative work."

Each school improvement leadership construct was comprised of question items that first focused upon the leadership work that was defined by the construct and then the level of priority the school administrator placed on the specific leadership work. All leadership work questions were reported on a 5-point scale regarding the amount of work and a 5-point scale regarding the priority the school administrator placed on the leadership work.

Dependent variable—teacher-evaluation. The teacher-evaluation construct was a mean based upon questions that asked the school administrator about his/her perception of the overall teacher-evaluation process and his/her perception of the *Framework for Teacher* as an evaluation tool. These questions regarding school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation reflected the literature in Chapter 2. Nine questions addressed specific priorities that aligned with implementation of teacher-evaluation process that asked participants to rate agreement to questionnaire items about implementing the district's new teacher-evaluation process such as "The new district teacher-evaluation system accurately assesses student-learning/growth based

upon teacher performance" or "Teachers are given feedback based upon the teacher-evaluation system to improve their teaching." Eight additional questions focused upon using the *Framework for Teaching* as an evaluation tool that focused participants work in using the Charlotte Danielson's *Framework for Teaching* as an evaluation tool such as "The *Framework for Teaching* has improved my ability to evaluate my teachers accurately" or "The *Framework for Teaching* provides a common definition of high quality teaching in my school." All teacher-evaluation questions were reported on a 6-point scale that reflected their agreement with a particular aspect of the teacher-evaluation construct.

Cognitive pretesting of the questionnaire. The *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* was cognitively pretested due to revising an established principal questionnaire (CCSR, 2007, 2009) to a new purpose and population. Cognitive pretesting can be defined

> as the administration of draft questionnaire questions while collecting additional verbal information about the questionnaire responses, which is used to evaluate the quality of the response or to help determine whether the question is generating the information that its author intends. (Beatty & Willis, 2007, p. 287)

The cognitive pretesting process assessed individual items of the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* for content validity. Embedded within the standardized steps of cognitive pretesting were three critical cognitive information-process steps that a respondent needed to successfully complete to provide a cognitively valid response: (a) item interpretation which required the respondent to describe the range of acceptable interpretations of what the item means; (b) coherent elaborations that included a range of acceptable memories about experiences, thoughts, feelings, or perceptions shared by the respondent when determining an answer; and (c) provide a coherent answer response that is consistent with other coherent elaborations (Woolley, Bowen, & Bowen, 2006).

My role during the cognitive pretesting was to facilitate the participant's verbalization of thoughts, through both think alouds (Ericsson & Simon, 1980, 1993), as well as intensive interview follow-up probes. Willis (1994, 2005) provided that cognitive interviewing needed to include interviewer-guided activities with probes about conprehension, confidence ratings, and requests to paraphase questions. A question protocol was used during the cognitive pretests to increase the validity and reliability of the cognitive pretests conducted with three school administrators from another large, unit district utilizing an evaluation process based upon the *Framework for Teaching* (Danielson, 1996). The first school administrator was an elementary principal with a student population of less that 350 and less than 20% student mobility. This school administrator had 11 years experience as a school administrator and 16 years as a teacher. The second school administrator was an assistant principal from a middle school with a student population between 350 and 800 and less than 20% student mobility. The second school administrator has been a school administrator for nine years and a total of 16 years as a teacher and counselor. The final school administrator was an assistant principal at the high school level with more than 801 students and more than 20% student mobility. This school administrator has six years of school administrator experience and five years experience as a teacher. Collectively, these three school administrators comprise many of the Phase 1 and 2 variables school administrator demographics and school characteristics variables utilized in this research study.

In preparation for conducting the cognitive pretests for the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire*, I was tutored in cognitive pretesting by a graduate assistant who had led multiple cognitive labs. The tutoring session utilized a "dummy" interviewee with a standardized cognitive pretest protocol developed for the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* items. The tutoring process provided me with knowledge to conduct the cognitive pretests with a high

rate of fidelity. In addition to utilizing a standardized protocol, I taped and reviewed all cognitive pretesting sessions, and compared the recorded notes with written notes collected during each pretesting sessions. Beatty and Willis (2007) suggested that analysis of the pretested questionnaire be based on whether apparent problems were logically attributed to question characteristics. The standardized protocol allowed me to trianglulate cognitive testing sessions through the use of a systematic coding and analysis process to study consistent themes from the pretesting sessions.

The benefit for using cognitive pretesting with the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* was pretesting could identify *how* a new population interpreted the instrument items and these findings helped to inform the final revision of the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire*. Another benefit for utilizing cognitive pretesting was the cost-benefit of adapting an existing, well-established instrument instead of developing a completely new questionnaire. Due to concerns regarding the content validity of using an established questionnaire instrument for a new purpose and population, cognitive pretesting provided a systematic approach for pretesting and validating the use of the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* to this study's research purpose and population (Kempler & Kelly, 2007).

Cognitive pretesting, while useful when validating established instruments for a new population or purpose, could lead to conclusions that are incomplete, misleading, or incorrect. Areas for possible error included having a cognitive interview identify problems that were not "real" or cognitive interviews not identfying problems that did actually exist in the questionnaire (Beatty et al., 2007). I made the assumption that the cognitive pretesting found problems that would carry over to the finalized questionnaire if not corrected. Although there was no way to

verify that this hypothized assumption was "real," the logical argument and systematic collection of the respondent information had to suffice.

Phase 1 quantitative sampling plan and procedures. The cross-sectional questionnaire was administered in April 2011 to 109 school administrators at the conclusion of the district's teacher-evaluation process for the 2010-11 school year. At the beginning of the 2010-11 school year during a face-to-face meeting, all 109 Riverton school administrators were invited to take the *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* through a web-based data collection process. At this meeting, I provided a written description of the research study, research procedures, and a consent form for each school administrator. Time was provided during and after the meeting for potential participants to ask questions or seek further clarification about the research study.

This initial sampling plan included conducting a pre/post questionnaire to be administered in November 2010 and again in April 2011. The questionnaire would be emailed to all school administrators who had given signed consent. The questionnaire sampling plan was structured to capture school administrators perceptions of their work at the mid-point (late fall) and end (spring) of the district teacher-evaluation cycle.[3] Forty-six of the 109 school administrators turned in signed consent forms (42%) and 31[4] of the 46 school administrators (28% of the total school administrator population) responded to the web-based pre-questionnaire during the month-long testing period, which included two email reminders sent to all 46 school administrators. Only 26 of the 31 respondents submitted complete surveys. Due to the low

[3] Riverton's Teacher-evaluation Plan had a differentiated structure for evaluating non-tenured and tenured staff. Non-tenured first and second year teachers were required to have at least 1 informal observation and up to 3, with a minimum of 2, formal observations (includes pre/post conferences). Non-tenured third and fourth year teachers were required to have at least 1 informal observation and up to 3, with a minimum of 1, formal observations each year. Tenured teachers that did not receive an unsatisfactory rating the previous year, utilized an annual self-directed professional learning plan that had multiple options. Within a two-year period, the tenured teacher had at least 1 informal or formal observation by the evaluator.

[4] Five respondents dropped out after the first five questionnaire items were completed.

response rate to the online pre questionnaire (n = 26[5]), the initial Phase 1 questionnaire sampling plan was modified. I made the decision to switch from a pre/post, online testing approach, to a cross-sectional, in-person testing approach. The revised Phase 1 questionnaire sampling plan included a paper/pencil version of *The School Administrators' Work Questionnaire*[6] to be administered in person at the April 2011 district administrator meeting.

At the April administrator meeting, each school administrator was given a numbered questionnaire packet that contained a waiver of consent form and questionnaire (Appendix A). Thirty minutes were provided for the participants to voluntarily complete the questionnaire. To avoid risk of visual identification of respondents, all school administrators were asked to return the questionnaire packet regardless of whether the questionnaire was completed. The questionnaire did not contain identifying information beyond school administrator background information unless the school administrator provided his/her name and email to receive a $5 gift card honorarium and/or agreed to be contacted for a follow-up interview. No district personnel were in the room during the explanation of the purpose of the questionnaire or during the questionnaire administration period. I remained in the room to answer questions school administrators had while completing the questionnaire and stood near the area of the room where the questionnaire packets were returned to assure there was no contamination of the

[5] Number of school administrators who persisted in completing the November questionnaire.

[6] The analysis of initial questionnaire revealed two data quality issues: low variation in response rates and limited differentiation between individual and team leadership in school improvement constructs. The initial questionnaire had 95% of the *items* receiving response endorsements in response categories 3 and 4 (quite a lot, a great deal). To address this issue, the school leadership construct response scales were extended from four (very little, some, quite a lot, a great deal) to five response categories (an extremely small amount, a small amount, a moderate amount, a large amount, an extremely large amount) while the teacher-evaluation construct scales were extended from four (strongly disagree, disagree, agree, stronly agree) to six categories (strongly disagree, disagree, mildly disagree, mildly agree, agree, stronly agree). The initial questionnaire data also indicated that participants were not differentiating responses between individual and teamwork leadership priorities *items* contained in each of the four leadership constructs. The team *items* were removed (N = 24) from the questionnaire in order to shorten the length of the questionnaire from 75 *items* to 51 *items* to encourage completion as well as narrow the focus of the leadership constructs to only the work of the individual school administrator.

questionnaire return process. By using this protocol there was an anticipated completion rate of 70% or better.

Days before the scheduled Riverton School District Administrator Meeting, the Riverton Director of Secondary Curriculum cancelled the attendance of all middle and high school administrators at the district meeting. Only elementary school administrators were in attendance at the face-to-face meeting. The *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* was still administered to 36 of the 40[7] elementary school administrators at the district meeting, utilizing the process described above. All 36 elementary school administrators returned questionnaire packets, with 33 of the 36 questionnaires completed (90%), 10 requesting honorariums (27%), and 20 (56%) agreeing to be contacted for follow-up interviews.

The Riverton Director of Secondary Curriculum approved a modified[8] person-to-person questionnaire distribution approach for middle and high school administrators. Following the district administrator meeting, I drove to the individual high schools and middle schools and hand-delivered a questionnaire packet to each of the 69 school administrators. All high school and middle school administrators received a numbered questionnaire packet. A week was given for the administrators to complete the questionnaire, with an introductory email explanation sent to each participant at the beginning of the testing period and an email reminder one day before I picked up the questionnaire packets. Twenty-two of the 53 high school administrators returned the questionnaire packet with 20 of the 22 questionnaires being completed (38%), six (11%)

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[7] Four elementary school administrators were attending a conference the day that the questionnaire was administered at the district meeting. Questionnaire packets were driven to their individual schools following the meeting and put in their individual school mailboxes. The introductory email and completion reminder email were also emailed to each of the four elementary school administrators but none of the four elementary principals returned a completed questionnaire.

[8] The modified middle and high school approach still met the approved IRB requirement of researcher-to-participant distribution and return.

honorariums were requested, and 11 (21%) high school administrators agreed to be contacted for an interview. At the middle school level, all of the 16 school administrators returned questionnaire packets with 13 of the 16 school questionnaires completed (81%), only one (.06%) administrator requesting an honorarium, and five administrators (31%) agreeing to follow-up interviews. The total response rate for the April *School Administrators' Work Questionnaire* was 66 out of 109 school administrators or 61%.

Phase 2 School Administrators' Interview Protocol and Sampling Plan

The second phase of the mixed-method study, which consisted of nine interviews, one at preschool, three at elementary, two at middle school, three at high school, was complementary to Phase 1 findings that needed further explanation and personalization (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Morse, 1991). Significant, non-significant, and surprising questionnaire data guided the development of the qualitative sampling plan as well as the development of the 13 questions contained in the *School Administrator Interview Protocol*.

The Phase 2 interview protocol. The *School Administrator Interview Protocol* (Appendix B) was developed in order to clarify and extend initial findings from the questionnaire data. To use the interview protocol to complement and clarify the questionnaire findings, I first examined the differences within demographics at the construct level but found no substantial differences. Standardized mean differences or effect sizes were computed for each *item* between each category of a demographic. The effect size provided a measure of the distance between two means (e.g., male and female) and was interpreted like a standard deviation. In conducting this analysis, effect sizes greater than 0.5 were used as a signal of meaningful differences between

school administrators from different schools (e.g., elementary vs. high school) or having different characteristics (e.g., more teaching experience vs. less teaching experience).

As a result, standardized mean differences or effect sizes at the *item* level were used to develop questions for the interview tool to identify substantial differences in thinking about specific features of school administrators' work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation. For example, in Instructional Leadership items, "Helping teachers carefully track student academic progress" and "Pressing teachers to implement what they have learned in professional development," high school and middle school administrators felt that this aspect of their leadership work was less of a priority than did elementary school administrators. In order to deepen understanding regarding how school administrators at different levels thought and acted upon instructional leadership, *School Administrator Interview Protocol* Question 4 was developed, "In your work as a school leader, what enables or hinders your work for initiating or leading school improvement activities for teachers."

Another example is a Teacher-Evaluation item, "The *Framework for Teaching* helps me to identify appropriate supports (e.g., mentoring, professional development, teaching resources) my teachers need in order to improve," which had significantly different responses from school administrators who taught more than 20 years before becoming a school administrator versus school administrators who had taught 1-10 or 11-20 years before becoming a school administrator. To provide context to this Phase 1 finding, interviewees were asked to respond to *School Administrator Interview Protocol* Question 11, "Tell me how your past experiences as a teacher have influenced your work as a school leader and as an evaluator of teaching (i.e., in creating a professional community for learning, providing feedback to teachers to improve instruction, providing support to teachers)."

Additionally, I reviewed the 109 open participant responses to the questionnaire's final question, "What features should a comprehensive Teacher-evaluation system have in order to support School Improvement?" The questionnaire responses were coded and organized into three teacher-evaluation themes that included the role of student-growth data in measuring teacher practice, use of common indicators, strategies, and data collection tools in the district evaluation process, and the importance of having common expectations for effective teaching throughout the district for both non-tenured and tenured staff.

The Phase 2 sampling plan. In developing a sampling plan, sampling logic stresses that a researcher must be careful to not select participants because they might "think like me" or because the selection was convenient but instead must purposefully select participants who help develop a detailed understanding of significant information, the study's phenomenon, and the research context (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Using questionnaire response data from the study, interviewees were purposefully selected for the qualitative phase of the study. The selection process was conducted in two steps. The first step was to examine aggregate responses at the item level by different school characteristics (i.e., school type, student population, student mobility) and administrator characteristics (i.e., years of teaching, experience as school administrator, gender) to develop a sampling plan. The second step was to examine individual responses to items in order to identify interviewees.

I began by examining differences within demographics at the construct level but no substantial differences were found. Analysis using standardized effects at the *item* level yielded far more interesting results than the construct level analysis. For example, standardized differences greater than 0.5 were observed between elementary and middle school administrators for several items in Instructional Leadership. Further, several substantial differences were

observed in items throughout the questionnaire between administrators who had taught one-to-ten years versus those that had taught over 20 years prior to becoming an administrator.

Based on this analysis, I devised an initial sampling plan that included determining participants who had completed the questionnaire and agreed to an individual follow-up interview (Appendix C). After determining school administrators who had agreed to a follow-up interview, I then utilized extreme case sampling to identify "atypical" school administrators. School administrators were defined as atypical if they were determined to "quantifiably think different from their peers" (i.e., more than three responses on the questionnaire that were two standard deviations away from the mean) about specific aspects of school improvement and/or teacher-evaluation work regardless of their demographic characteristics. Due to not having enough atypical school administrators that agreed to being interviewed, homogeneous sampling was also utilized.The homogeneous sampling was based upon the administrators' school level (i.e., high school level, middle school level, elementary school, other) in order to ensure that there were at least two school administrator interviewees from each school level.

After I developed a sampling plan, I removed respondents from the questionnaire data who had not volunteered their contact information for an interview and began to select participants from the remaining respondents. Thirty-eight out of 66 school administrators (58%) who completed the questionnaire agreed to be considered for an individual interview. In order to identify atypical school administrators, the next step was to standardize each item to compute a mean equal to zero and a standard deviation equal to one. By standardizing items, I could examine school administrators' individual responses to those items relative to the overall group mean to identify potential atypical interviewees. Atypical responses were identified if the standardized value to an item was greater than +/- 2.0, which is equivalent to two standard

deviations away from the mean. More specifically, if a respondent had more than three responses on the questionnaire that were two standard deviations away from the mean, that respondent was flagged as a potential interviewee. Using this sampling strategy, 10 "atypical" school administrators were identified as primary interviewees (i.e., four high school administrators, one middle school administrator, three elementary administrators, two other administrators—one preschool and one who recently moved to a different administrative position other than school administrator). The 10 atypical school administrators were identified and contacted through email and provided two follow-up emails, if needed. Six[9] out the 10 atypical school administrators participated in the interview process. The additional participants were selected from elementary, middle school[10], high school, and other homogenous groups. I continued to email school administrators until nine interviews were conducted (Table 2).

Table 2

Demographics of Phase 2 Interviewees

Name	Atypical (Y/N)	School level	School size (# of students)	Student mobility	Years as a school administrator	Years as teacher
Ms. Armony	N	High school	801+	>20%	4	16*
Ms. Chevy	Y	Other - PreKindergarten	0-350	>20%	1	25*
Ms. Florence	Y	Elementary	351-800	>20%	13	19
Ms. Whitten	N	High school	801+	>20%	9	13*
Mr. Majors	N	Middle school	351-800	>20%	11	8
Mr. Taylor	Y	Elementary	351-800	>20%	15	11
Mr. Fontaine	Y	Elementary	351-800	>20%	16	18

(continued)

[9] Eight atypical school administrators had originally agreed to participate in follow-up interviews but two administrators dropped out, one due to scheduling issues and one due to illness. Both school administrators were given multiple dates/times to reschedule but elected to not participate in the interview process.

[10] There were five middle school administrators who completed and returned the interview consent form. Only one of the five was identified as an atypical respondent. Two of the other four middle school administrator agreed through email to participate in an interview. One of the two cancelled and elected to not reschedule an interview due to illness. The additional two middle school administrators who had originally consented to an interview did not respond to the three emails that were sent.

Table 2 (continued)

Name	Atypical (Y/N)	School level	School size (# of students)	Student mobility	Years as a school administrator	Years as teacher
Ms. Bright	Y	Middle school	801+	<20%	20	12
Ms. Target	Y	High school	801+	>20%	3	5

Note. * identifies "years as teacher" including non-administrator positions beyond classroom teaching (e.g., instructional coach, grant writer, specialist)

Interviews were semi-structured in nature with the *School Administrators' Interview Protocol* guiding my questioning process and probes when facilitating school administrators' description of their personalized work and priorities for Phase 1 issues of interest. Yin (2009) describes the two roles of the interviewer during the interview process to include: (a) follow your line of inquiry, as reflected by your interview protocol; and (b) ask your actual (conversational questions) in an unbiased manner that also serves the needs of your line of inquiry.

Specifically, the 45-60 minute focused interviews (Merton, Fiske, & Kendall, 1990) stayed open-ended and conversational yet focused upon exploring the extent, nature, and quality of the participants' thoughts and feelings regarding three themes that emerged from the questionnaire open response question, specific aspects of their work as a school leader in the four leadership constructs, and understanding how the new teacher-evaluation process affected their work as a school leader. Each interviewee was asked to sign an interview consent form that provided the interview purpose, risks, benefits, and description of digital recording process (Appendix D). Keeping record of the interviews was done through tape recordings that were transcribed with meticulous attention not only to what the participant said but also to the manner in which the participant responded. Meticulous recordkeeping was accomplished by listening carefully, taking notes, asking for clarification, and taking ample time immediately following the interview to prepare an informal summary that included key ideas and concepts from the interview (Stake, 1995).

Supplementally, key school improvement and teacher-evaluation documents were reviewed including the Riverton Unit School District Teacher-evaluation Plan, aligned evaluation tools, the district improvement plan accomplishment report, and administrative teacher-evaluation professional development documents. These documentary repositories were used to enhance understanding of the work context of school administrators as both the school improvement leader and the teacher effectiveness supervisor and evaluator.

Phase 1 Structual Analysis of Questionnaire

Addressing the cohesiveness of constructs through quantitative analyses is extremely valuable in establishing the validity of questionnaire interpretations. Although this questionnaire was adapted from an instrument with previously established reliability and validity (*Improving Chicago Schools Principal Questionnaire*, 2007, 2009) and the questionnaire had also been cognitively tested, it was important to quantitatively examine the cohesiveness of constructs administered to a different population than for whom the questionnaire was originally designed. Correlation and reliability analyses were conducted using Microsoft Excel (2008), PASW (SPSS 16.0) and SAS (9.2). Factor analysis was not feasible due to the small sample size.

Preliminary examination of questionnaire. The 48-item[11] questionnaire included six major dimensions. Four dimensions were classified as part of School Administrator Leadership (Instructional Leadership, Inclusive Leadership, School Administrator-Teacher Trust, School Administrator Supports for Change) and two sub-dimensions (Work and Priority) were within each major dimension. The remaining two dimensions were the assessment of the teacher-

[11] The original questionnaire data had 51 items but three reversal items were removed from the questionnaire data after the reversals were determined to adversely affect the correlational and reliability analysis.

evaluation process in a school administrator's school (Teacher-evaluation Process) and the assessment of the teacher-evaluation tool (Teacher-evaluation Tool).

Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, frequency distributions) were examined across all items (Table 3). There was very little missing data (<0.01%) and relatively equal distribution of responses across items. However, fewer than 5% of all responses were 1 or 2, indicating that principals responded favorably to the vast majority of items in the questionnaire. Although the range of response categories was increased for this cross-sectional questionnaire in order to support more variance in participants' responses, most responses still clustered at the higher, more positive, levels of response with level four and five receiving 73% of all responses. This highly positive overall response to the questionnaire could be due to school administrators selecting socially desirable answers versus responses that accurately reflected their work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation. The school administrator might also have responded more positively due to feelings that the questionnaire constructs described the work and priorities that the school administrator should be doing whether he/she currently was or not.

An anomaly to this response trend was discovered in four individual *items* of two questionnaire dimensions, Instructional Leadership and School Administrator Support for Change. The *item* IL_4_02 had one response at level 1(1.49% of response category) but eight responses at level 2 (11.94% of response category). This specific *item* focused upon initiating or coordinating specific instructional improvement activities. Three *items* in School Administrator Support for Change, SASC_15_03—Planning and/or conducting a variety of staff development activities, SASC_15_04—Hiring teachers based upon instructional priorities of the school, and SASC_15_05—Encouraging teachers who are not effective to leave, received an aggregate of 14

level 1 responses (45% of response category) and 31 responses at level 2 (26% of response category). These *item* anomalies guided the development of two interview questions that were utilized with nine school administrators in Phase 2 interviews.

Table 3

School Administrators' Work Questionnaire Descriptive Statistics

				Response categories					
Item	M	SD	Missing	1	2	3	4	5	6
IL_4_01	3.67	.91		1	5	21	28	12	
IL_4_02	3.66	1.01		1	8	19	24	15	
IL_4_03	3.73	.91		2	3	18	32	12	
IL_4_04	3.86	.93	1	1	3	18	26	18	
IL_6_01	4.13	.85		1	2	8	32	24	
IL_6_02	4.06	.83			3	12	30	22	
IL_6_03	3.97	.85		2	1	10	38	16	
IL_6_05	4.58	.70		1		2	20	44	
IL_6_06	4.42	.84		1	2	3	23	38	
InL_7_01	4.12	.71		1		7	41	18	
InL_7_02	4.01	.73			1	14	35	17	
InL_7_04	4.09	.77			1	14	35	17	
InL_9_01	4.42	.68			1	14	30	22	
InL_9_02	4.66	.54				2	19	46	
InL_9_03	4.34	.75			1	8	25	33	
SATT_13_01	3.81	.77	3		1	23	27	13	
SASC_18_01	3.28	.57			2	46	17	2	
SATT_10_01	4.12	.77	1		2	10	32	22	
SATT_10_02	4.36	.64				6	31	30	
SATT_10_03	4.49	.61			1	1	29	36	
SATT_10_04	4.06	.81		1	1	11	34	20	
SATT_10_05	4.03	.80		1	2	8	39	17	
SATT_12_01	4.39	.65				6	29	32	
SATT_12_02	4.49	.59				3	28	36	
SATT_12_03	4.25	.66				8	34	25	
SATT_12_04	4.52	.56				2	28	37	
SASC_15_01	4.07	.75			1	13	33	20	
SASC_15_02	4.19	.68			1	7	37	22	
SASC_15_03	3.60	1.00		2	7	19	27	12	
SASC_15_04	3.64	1.26		4	11	12	18	22	
SASC_15_05	3.24	1.34		8	13	17	13	16	
SASC_17_01	4.19	.70			2	5	38	22	
SASC_17_02	4.49	.56				2	30	35	
SASC_17_03	4.22	.67				9	34	24	

(continued)

Table 3 (continued)

Item	M	SD	Missing	Response categories					
				1	2	3	4	5	6
SASC_17_04	4.22	.87		1	2	7	28	29	
SASC_17_06	3.89	1.18	1	4	5	10	22	25	
TE_24_01	5.19	.63				2	2	44	19
TE_24_02	4.27	1.08			7	5	24	25	6
TE_24_03	4.30	1.28	1		10	6	14	26	10
TE_24_04	4.58	1.10	1		5	3	20	25	13
TE_24_05	5.26	.73	1		1	1	2	38	24
TE_24_06	4.56	1.07	1		4	5	19	26	12
TE_24_07	5.36	.62	1				5	32	29
TE_24_08	5.45	.66	1			1	3	27	35
TE_24_09	4.11	1.23	1	1	6	12	23	14	10
TE_25_01	5.27	.81			1	1	6	30	29
TE_25_02	5.37	.57					3	36	28
TE_25_03	4.88	.83			2		15	37	13
TE_25_04	2.33	1.13	1	1	4	3	13	32	13
TE_25_05	5.21	.79				3	6	32	26
TE_25_06	5.01	.86			1	4	6	38	18
TE_25_07	5.09	.83			1	2	8	35	21
TE_25_08	5.64	.69				2	2	14	49

Note. -9 indicates missing observation. For items IL_4_01 to SASC_17_06, response categories reflect 5-point Likert scale of "Extremely small extent, Small extent, Moderate extent, Large extent, Extremely large extent. For items TE_24_01 to TE_25_08, response categories reflect a 6-point Likert scale of "Strongly disagree, Disagree, Mildly disagree, Mildly agree, Agree, Strongly agree

Correlational analyses. Correlational analyses were used to explore the coherent nature of the five major and sub-dimensions. Within each dimension and sub-dimension, two sets of correlations were calculated including inter-item and item-dimension total. Each item was examined for three relationships: (a) how the item correlated within its sub-dimension, (b) how the item correlated with total scores within its sub-dimension and major dimension, and (c) how the item correlated with items outside the dimension. Correlations of 0.3 or higher are indicators of moderate relationships between variables in social science research. In this analysis, there were consistently moderate to strong correlations (r = 0.3-0.8) between items within its sub-dimension, major dimension, and sub-dimension score. I also observed several moderate correlations between items that were not in the same dimension. For example, items in

Instructional Leadership frequently correlated with items in *Inclusive Leadership* and *Principal Supports for Change*. However, I observed that the three items identified to be reverse coded (IL_6_03r, SATT_12_03r, SASC_17_03r) had no relationship or were correlated negatively (*r = -0.1 to -0.7)* with all other items in the questionnaire. No relationship or a negative relationship between reversed items and other items was unexpected; these items were reverse coded due to each item being expected to be negatively scored by the participant, and reverse coding improving the cohesiveness of the construct. This anomaly also affected the reliability analysis, which is presented next.

Reliability analysis. Coefficient alpha was used to determine if the groups of questionnaire questions assigned to the six dimensions and sub-dimensions represented coherent constructs for each dimension. For example, I would have expected a participant to respond similarly to each question assigned to the *Work towards Instructional Leadership* dimension. Coefficient alpha provided a value between 0 (indicating a unreliable model) and 1 (indicating a perfectly reliable model); research standards dictated a value of 0.7 to substantiate claims of a reliable measure. Coefficient alpha was calculated for each dimension, sub-dimension, and the questionnaire as a whole to estimate construct coherence for the questionnaire.

Alpha values calculated for the questionnaire included separate alpha values for each sub-dimension and an overall value for summative scales of the sub-dimensions and total scale for teacher-evaluation. The initial analyses confirmed that the reverse coded items were not performing well within their scales and dragging the coefficient alpha value toward zero. When those items were removed, coefficient alpha values improved immensely, successfully exceeding the research standard. As a result, these items were removed from subsequent analyses. Further, TE_25_04 was another item intended to be reverse coded. When it was included in the scale, the

alpha value was acceptable (α = 0.84). Removing it caused the alpha value to increase slightly, α = 0.88. It was not imperative then to remove the item but upon examining these results against the correlations it became apparent that the item did not correlate well within its dimension or outside it so it was also removed from subsequent analyses. The best guess for the poor performance of these items was that principals ignored the word that was supposed to trigger a negative response (e.g., pressing, insisting) and instead focused solely on the content, which they readily indicated that they prioritized in their work. The final summary statistics and reliability analyses for each scale are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

School Administrators' Work Questionnaire Summary Statistics for Item Scales

Item Scale	Mean	SD	Alpha	No. items	Item block on paper version
Instructional Leadership					
Work	3.74	.80	.87	4	4-7
Priority	4.30	.66	.84	4	8-9, 11-12
Inclusive Leadership					
Work	4.20	.62	.73	3	13-15
Priority	4.47	.52	.70	3	16-18
School Administrator-Teacher Trust					
Work	4.21	.51	.74	5	21-25
Priority	4.47	.47	.69	3	26-27, 29
School Administrator Supports for Change					
Work	3.75	.67	.651	5	30-34
Priority	4.20	.62	.728	4	35-36, 37-38
School Improvement Work Total	15.77	1.97	.859	17	
School Improvement Priority Total	17.46	1.75	.859	14	
Teacher-evaluation Process	4.78	.60	.794	9	45-53
Teacher-evaluation Tool	5.21	.59	.883	8	54-56, 58-61
Teacher-evaluation Total	9.63	1.01	.891	17	
Total	-	-	.930	48	*

Note. *Items included are all items in scales above.

For all scales except for *Priority of School Administrator-Teacher Trust* and *Work for School Administrator Supports for Change*, alpha values exceeded research standard. Although the analysis indicated that removing one item from *Priority of School Administrator-Teacher Trust* would increase reliability above 0.7, I decided not to eliminate this item because it would reduce the number of items to only two. In the *Work for School Administrator Supports for Change* sub-dimension, there was no indication that removing an item would improve the reliability of the scale so all items were included. The average score was calculated for each set of items within a sub-dimension as well as summative scales across sub-dimensions that were used in analyzing the data to answer research questions.

Phase 2 Structural Analysis of Interviews

While credibility in quantitative research depends on instrument construction, in qualitative research, "the researcher is the instrument" (Patton, 2001, p. 14). The qualitative data collection and subsequent analysis involved exploring, coding, describing, and developing the data into a variety of themes for the purpose of generating understanding of major, minor, and unexpected concepts that arose from the nine school administrators' thinking around their work between school improvement and teacher-evaluation.

Embedded into all phases of the data collection and analysis was the need for credibility (internal validity), transferability (external validity), dependability (reliability), and confirmability (objectivity) for natualistic axioms that embody trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1988). Rich, thick descriptions of nine selected administrators' "lived experiences" in school improvement and teacher-evaluation were collected, along with supporting documents, to confirm the credibility of the findings that should make sense from my standpoint as the

researcher, as well as from the participants' and readers' point of view (Creswell, 2009). Transferability and fittingness were addressed when descriptions and themes were "generalized" to human resource theory and literature or were provided for future use by readers to connect the "thick description" to their own lives (Lincoln & Guba, 1986; Maxwell, 2005).

The issue of dependability, also termed reliability and auditability, was addressed by the interview process being conducted consistently throughout all nine interviews. Key strategies used to determine the dependability of the process was the review of the data collection process across multiple interviews, data quality checks for bias, and confirmation of the coding process across multiple sources of data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The final measure for establishing trustworthiness is conformability or objectivity. This measure asked that the study be reasonably free of unacknowledged researcher bias. To establish trustworthiness, the data collection process needed to be clearly described and followed, and the conclusions needed to be explicitly linked to condensed/displayed data (Schwandt, 2007).

The school administrators' interviews were anlyzed using hand analysis which means that the data were read, marked by hand, and divided into parts. Hand analysis was selected versus use of a qualitative computer program due to the small data base (i.e., fewer than 500 pages of transcripts or fieldnotes) that was organized and condensed using Microsoft Word (Creswell, 2005). Specifically, I used both constant comparision method with deductive coding to develop themes (Bogden & Biklen, 2003; Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and classical content analysis to help identify which codes were used the most to guide development of important concepts (Leech & Onwuegubuzie, 2007).

Due to being interested in utilizing the entire Phase 2 dataset to identify underlying themes, constant comparison analysis was used to deductively develop codes from the interview

data. First, I read through the entire set of data. Next, I clustered the data with a descriptive title or a "code." I consistently compared each new cluster of data with previous documents, so similar clusters would be labeled with the same code. After all the data were coded, the codes were grouped by similarity into themes with aligned sub-themes (Creswell, 2005; Leech & Onwuegubuzie, 2007).

The classical content analysis was utilized throughout the coding period to answer the data analysis question, "What concepts (represented through codes) are discussed most?" (Leech & Onwuegubuzie, 2007, p. 569). A coding scheme for each individual school administrator was developed. Using this Phase 2 data analysis process, each school administrator's work priorities emerged and then were merged through data review, analysis, and coding/theme/sub-theme development.

Methodology Summary

This explanatory design with follow-up explanations model involved the selection of units of analysis through the sequential use of probability and purposeful sampling strategies (QUAN-QUAL). Sequential QUAN-QUAL sampling is the most common technique utilized in mixed-methods design, providing "information from the first sample (typically derived from a probability sampling procedure) is often required to draw the second sample (typically derived from a purposive sampling procedure)" (Kemper, Stringfield, & Teddlie, 2003, p. 284). Results from the QUAN strand, in this case the cross-sequential questionnaire, were defined and refined by purposefully selected school administrators who shared their thinking about their work.

Sampling in Phase 1 provided representativeness, reflecting general characteristics of the district school administrators' work and priorities (Wunsch, 1986). The quantitative component

examined the extent to which a relationship existed between school administrators' work in leading school improvement and implementing teacher-evaluation. The qualitative phase, which provided meaning to the conceptual framework, shared rich description of themes that explained and extended nine school administrators' personalized work context in school leadership and teacher-evaluation. Chapter 4 provides the findings that connect "quantitative and qualitative research methodologies so that the most accurate and authentic picture of the knowledge bases and skills associated with change processes is available" (Kratochwill & Stoiber, 2000, p. 600). Chapter 5 concludes with research recommendations, considerations, and future areas of study regarding the relationship between school administrators' work in school improvement and implementation of a teacher-evaluation process.

Chapter 4

Findings

This explanatory mixed-methods research study was based upon the overarching research question, "What is the relationship between school administrators' work in school improvement and the perception of the implementation of the teacher-evaluation process, and how does this relationship influence school administrators' leadership work?" The study utilized a cross-sectional questionnaire and collection of "extreme case" and homogenous interview data to determine findings to this research question. Chapter Four begins by utilizing Phase 1 quantitative research questions to investigate the extent that school administrator demographics and school characteristics influenced the work of school administrators in school improvement and teacher-evaluation. Phase 1 questions also examined the correlation between school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement.

The Phase 2 research question contextualized Phase 1 results at the *item* level by providing rich description regarding the manner in which school administrators address their work as both the school supervisor and evaluator of teachers' work. Phase 1 and 2 summary sections in Chapter 4 each conclude by returning to the study's research hypotheses described in Chapter 2. These hypotheses are:

- School administrators' perceptions of their work would differ by school improvement and teacher-evaluation based upon individual school administrator background characteristics.
- School administrators' perceptions of their work would differ by school improvement and teacher-evaluation based upon school organizational context.
- School administrators that reported strong affinity to leadership constructs (instructional leadership, inclusive leadership, teacher-school administrator trust, school administrator support for change) would be associated with higher preceived levels of implementation of teacher-evaluation process.

Phase 1 School Characteristics and School Administrator Demographics

An essential step before analyzing the differences between school administrators' work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation was to examine organizational and professional characteristics among school administrators who responded to the questionnaire. This analysis focused upon school administrator demographics (i.e., gender, years as a principal, teaching experience) as well as school organizational characteristics (i.e., level of school, student population, student mobility). Two school administrator demographics, school administrator previous work experience and highest degree earned, were purposefully omitted from the demographic analysis due to problems with data quality.

The 66 Riverton school administrators who responded to the questionnaire were from all levels of schooling with 31 (49.5%) being from elementary schools, 29 (30%) from middle schools, 13 (20%) from high schools, and 2 (0.5%) being other. Sixty-one percent of the administrators in this sample worked in school environments that had student populations between 351 and 800 students, while 65% of the respondents had 20% or less student mobility. In regard to individual school administrators' demographics, 35 of the 66 respondents were female (53%) with a majority of school administrators having less than 15 years of teaching experience (65%) before becoming a school administrator. Years of experience as a school administrator ranged from two to 23 years, with 63% of the school administrators having 10 or less years of administrative experience and 71% of the school administrators being in his/her current position for 5 years or less.

Differences between school administrators' demographics. In order to address the first and second research questions, an analysis of the data was conducted using t-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine whether the school administrators' work in school

improvement or teacher-evaluation differed on average from other school administrators based upon three different school administrator demographics. Although the reliability analysis of the questionnaire supported collapsing *items* into school leadership and teacher-evaluation dimensions as described in Chapter 3, the aggregate data from the four different school improvement constructs found no significant differences based upon school administrators' individual demographics (i.e., gender, years of experience as a principal, years in teaching).

For example, both Riverton male and female school administrators reported on average that they do " a large amount" or "an extremely large amount" of work in the four school improvement leadership dimensions. No statistically significant differences in school improvement work (effect size = -.02, p = .90) or school improvement priorities (effect size = .01, p = .95) were observed between the different genders of the school administrator (Table 5).

Table 5

School Improvement Work and Priority Independent Groups T-Test Results by Gender

	Male (n = 31)		Female (n = 35)				
Dependent Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	p	Effect size difference
Instructional Leadership Work	3.52	.65	3.89	.88	-1.88	.07	-.31
Instructional Leadership Priority	4.20	.54	4.37	.76	-1.04	.30	-.17
Inclusive Leadership Work	4.14	.66	4.01	.54	.88	.38	.15
Inclusive Leadership Priority	4.48	.46	4.47	.58	.132	.90	.02
School Administrator-Teacher Trust Work	4.27	.39	4.14	.59	1.012	.32	.17
School Administrator-Teacher Trust Priority	4.55	.38	4.38	.53	1.455	.15	.24
School Administrator Supports for Change Work	3.75	.57	3.71	.73	.283	.78	.05

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

Dependent Variable	Male (n = 31) Mean	Male (n = 31) SD	Female (n = 35) Mean	Female (n = 35) SD	t	p	Effect size difference
School Administrator Supports for Change Priority	4.20	.59	4.19	.65	.086	.93	.01
School Improvement Work	15.69	1.62	15.75	2.19	-.122	.90	-.02
School Improvement Priority	17.43	1.43	17.40	2.01	.064	.95	.01

Likewise in teacher-evaluation work, participants' gender (effect size = .107, p = .274) did not differentiate administrators' perceptions regarding implementation of the district's teacher-evaluation process (Table 6).

Table 6

Teacher-evaluation Process and Tool Independent Groups T-Tests Results by Gender

Dependent Variable	Male (n = 31) Mean	Male (n = 31) SD	Female (n = 35) Mean	Female (n = 35) SD	t	p	Effect size difference
Teacher-evaluation Process	4.70	.60	4.84	.60	-.98	.33	.02
Teacher-evaluation Tool	5.11	.59	5.30	.60	-1.03	.31	.12
Teacher-evaluation Total	9.76	1.09	10.06	1.05	-1.10	.27	.11

I also examined whether experience as a school administrator (five or less years, more than five years) was a predictor of differences in school administrators' work and priorities in school improvement (Table 7). These data indicate that the average school administrators' work and priorities were not significantly different based upon the number of years of experience as school administrator (effect size = .11, p = .27).

Table 7

School Improvement Work and Priority Independent Groups T-Test Results by Years of Experience as School Administrator

Dependent Variable	Five or less years (n = 23) Mean	SD	More than five years (n = 34) Mean	SD	t	p	Effect size difference
Instructional Leadership Work	3.80	.93	3.83	.56	-1.88	.89	.02
Instructional Leadership Priority	4.28	.78	4.40	.50	-1.04	.48	.12
Inclusive Leadership Work	4.09	.50	4.18	.53	.88	.53	.11
Inclusive Leadership Priority	4.38	.50	4.56	.57	.13	.22	.21
School Administrator-Teacher Trust Work	4.10	.63	4.25	.42	1.01	.29	.18
School Administrator-Teacher Trust Priority	4.32	.51	4.52	.44	1.46	.12	.27
School Administrator Supports for Change Work	3.77	.72	3.83	.61	.28	.76	.05
School Administrator Supports for Change Priority	4.11	.71	4.30	.53	.09	.23	.20
School Improvement Work	15.77	2.19	16.09	1.37	-.122	.50	.13
School Improvement Priority	17.08	1.97	17.78	1.53	.064	.137	.27

Note. 10 missing responses.

Experience as a school administrator in regard to teacher-evaluation followed the same pattern as school administrators' work in school improvement. Effect size differences shown in Table 8 were not significantly different between work of school administrators with five or less years of administrative experience versus more than five years of administrative experience (effect size = .10, $p = .56$)

Table 8

Teacher-evaluation Independent Groups T-tests by Years Experience as a School Administrator

	Less than five years ($n = 23$)		More than 5 years ($n = 34$)				
Dependent Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	*p*	Effect size difference
Teacher-evaluation Process	4.86	.53	4.81	.62	.34	.73	.06
Teacher-evaluation Tool	5.30	.52	5.19	.67	.64	.53	.11
Teacher-evaluation Total	10.09	.95	9.93	1.14	.58	.56	.10

Note. 10 missing responses.

For the final school administrator demographic, I used ANOVA to determine if there were significant differences between the perceptions of school administrators based upon number of years of teaching before becoming an administrator (1-10, 11-19, 20 or more years of teaching). No significant differences between school administrators' work ($p < .05$) based upon number of years of teaching experience were found in school improvement leadership work, school leadership priority, or teacher-evaluation. The results are reported in Table 9 in aggregate form for all ANOVA models; in the interest of space, individual model results are not reported because no significant differences were found. Individual models are provided in Appendix E.

Table 9

School Improvement Work and Priority, and Teacher-evaluation ANOVA Results by Teaching Experience

Source	*F*	Sig.
Instructional leadership work	1.40	.26
Instructional leadership priority	.59	.56
Inclusive leadership work	.19	.83
Inclusive leadership priorities	1.18	.31
School administrator-teacher trust work	.46	.63
School administrator-teacher trust priority	.88	.42
School administrator supports for change work	1.05	.38
School administrator supports for change priority	.68	.51
School improvement work total	.66	.52
School improvement priority total	1.22	.30
Teacher-evaluation process	.22	.80
Teacher-evaluation tool	.97	.39
Teacher-evaluation total	.60	.55

Overall, no statistically significant differences in school administrators' perceptions of their work and priorities in school improvement or teacher-evaluation based upon school administrator background characteristics were found.

Differences between school administrators' school organizational characteristics. The data analysis of the third and fourth research questions again used t-tests and ANOVA to determine whether school administrators' work in school improvement or teacher-evaluation differed on average in three school organizational characteristics (school level, school size,

school mobility). These three variables again were found to have no significant association to school administrators' work in school improvement or teacher-evaluation dimensions.

When examining the results of school administrators' work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation based upon school size (351 to 800 students, more than 800 students), I predicted that school administrators of smaller schools would have done more work and placed more priority on student-learning and organizational outcomes than school administrators of larger schools (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2009) but the inverse was true (Table 10 and 11). School administrators with larger student populations prioritized school improvement work and teacher-evaluation slightly more than school administrators with smaller schools. My best explanation for this finding is that often school buildings with more than 800 students have multiple administrators. Based upon the administrator's position, he/she might be able to allocate more time and attention to school improvement and teacher-evaluation priorities than a solo school building administrator.

Table 10

School Improvement Work and Priority Independent Groups T-Test Results by Population of School

	351 to 800 students (n = 41)		More than 800 students (n = 25)				
Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	*p*	Effect size difference
Instructional leadership work	3.66	.81	3.99	.73	.99	.32	-.31
Instructional leadership priority	4.21	.75	4.44	.46	1.16	.25	-.17
Inclusive leadership work	4.04	.67	4.15	.47	.57	.57	.15
Inclusive leadership priority	4.46	.60	4.45	.36	.58	.56	.02

(continued)

Table 10 (continued)

Dependent variable	351 to 800 students (n = 41) Mean	SD	More than 800 students (n = 25) Mean	SD	t	p	Effect size difference
School administrator-teacher trust work	4.23	.54	4.19	.50	.67	.50	.17
School administrator-teacher trust priority	4.50	.47	4.35	.48	-.86	.39	.24
School Administrator Supports for Change Work	3.76	.68	3.82	.68	-.47	.64	.05
School Administrator Supports for Change Priority	4.16	.68	4.20	.55	-.60	.55	.01
School improvement work	15.69	2.14	16.15	1.61	.25	.81	-.02
School improvement priority	17.35	2.05	17.45	1.14	.17	.87	.01

Note. One response was 350 or less students.

Table 11

Teacher-evaluation Independent Groups T-Tests Results by Population

Dependent variable	351 to 800 students (n = 41) Mean	SD	More than 800 students (n = 25) Mean	SD	t	p	Effect size difference
Teacher-evaluation Process	4.75	.68	4.81	.47	-.61	.54	-.07
Teacher-evaluation Tool	5.21	.63	5.15	.55	-.05	.96	.08
Teacher-evaluation Total	9.89	1.17	9.91	.92	-.37	.71	-.01

Note. One response was 350 or less students

I also was interested in determining what differences existed between administrators' work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation based upon student mobility (less than 20%, 20% or greater). Again, literature defines the challenge for a school administrator to develop strong professional relationships with teachers when learning environments are not stable (Bryk et al., 2010) and negatively influence staff's commitment to the school's learning environment (Bevans et al., 2007). However, as Tables 12 and 13 highlight, no significant differences were found between school administrators' school improvement work or teacher-evaluation perceptions based upon student mobility.

Table 12

School Improvement Work and Priority Independent Groups T-Test Result by Student Mobility

	Less than 20% (n = 41)		20% or greater (n = 22)				
Dependent variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	*p*	Effect size difference
Instructional leadership work	3.82	.67	3.62	.99	-1.60	.12	.20
Instructional leadership priority	4.39	.52	4.20	.81	-1.31	.20	.23
Inclusive leadership work	4.11	.60	4.03	.60	-.69	.49	.11
Inclusive leadership priority	4.50	.55	4.43	.50	.06	.95	.12
School administrator-teacher trust work	4.19	.48	4.28	.57	.30	.76	-.13
School administrator-teacher trust priority	4.45	.47	4.55	.43	1.24	.22	-.17
School administrator supports for change work	3.74	.58	3.82	.75	-.32	.75	-.09

(continued)

Table 12 (continued)

Dependent variable	Less than 20% (n = 41) Mean	SD	20% or greater (n = 22) Mean	SD	t	p	Effect size difference
School administrator supports for change priority	4.18	.57	3.82	.75	-.32	.75	-.09
School improvement work	15.86	1.56	15.74	2.50	-.87	.39	.05
School improvement priority	17.52	1.53	17.45	2.00	-.21	.83	.04

Table 13

Teacher-evaluation Independent Groups T-Test Results by Mobility

Dependent variable	Less than 20% (n = 41) Mean	SD	20% or greater (n = 22) Mean	SD	t	p	Effect size difference
Teacher-evaluation process	4.753	.675	4.809	.471	-.346	.731	-.073
Teacher-evaluation tool	5.213	.633	5.149	.548	.262	.794	.084
Teacher-evaluation total	9.891	1.170	9.906	.918	-.053	.958	-.011

For the final school demographic, I, again, used ANOVA to determine if there were significant differences among the perceptions of school administrators at different school levels (elementary, middle school, high school). The ANOVA results are reported in Table 14. No significant differences among school administrators' work, school administrators' priority, or teacher-evaluation (p>.05) were found based upon school levels. Individual models are provided in Appendix F.

Table 14

School Improvement Work and Priority, and Teacher-evaluation ANOVA Results by School Level

Source	*F*	Sig.
Instructional leadership work	2.36	.10
Instructional leadership priority	1.2	.30
Inclusive leadership work	.34	.72
Inclusive leadership priority	.45	.64
School administrator-teacher trust work	.88	.42
School administrator-teacher trust priority	1.58	.22
School administrator supports for change work	.07	.93
School administrator supports for change priority	.32	.73
School improvement work total	.30	.74
School improvement priority total	.21	.81
Teacher-evaluation process	.14	.87
Teacher-evaluation tool	.51	.61
Teacher-evaluation total	.10	.91

Overall, no statistically significant differences in school administrators' perceptions of their work and priorities in school improvement or teacher-evaluation based upon school organizational context were found.

Phase 1 Relationships Between School Administrators' Perceptions of Implementation

The results of the correlation analyses between administrators' school improvement work and priorities, and the teacher-evaluation process and tools are provided in Table 15. In school administrators' school improvement work and priorities, most constructs (i.e., instructional

leadership, inclusive leadership, school administrator-teacher trust, school administrator support for change) were highly inter-correlated with the strongest priority variable being *School Administrator Support for Change* ($r = .838$, $p < .01$) and the strongest work variable being *Inclusive Leadership* ($r = .725$, $p < .01$).

The school improvement priority total showed moderate correlation to teacher-evaluation ($r = .473$, $p < .01$), as did school improvement work total to teacher-evaluation total ($r = .429$, $p < .01$). Although none of the school improvement dimensions individually were highly correlated to teacher-evaluation, *School Administrator Support for Change* did demonstrate a moderate correlation ($r = .502$, $p < .01$) to teacher-evaluation, which supported the conceptual framework's priority for the school administrator being responsible to "push in" change through his/her leadership work and priorities.

Table 15

School Improvement Work and Priority to Teacher-evaluation Correlations

Construct	IL_4_ Work	IL_6_ Priority	InL_7_ Work	InL_9_ Priority	SATT_ 10_ Work	SATT_ 12_ Priority	SASC _15_ Work	SASC_ 17_ Priority	Tchr_ Eval_ Process	Tchr_ Eval_ Tool	Tchr_ Eval_ Total	School_ Imp_ Priority	School Imp Total
IL_4_Work	1.000												
IL_6_ Priority	.594**	1.000											
InL_7_ Work	.483**	.591**	1.000										
InL_9_ Priority	.245*	.535**	.470**	1.000									
SATT_10_ Work	.400**	.387**	.478**	.402**	1.000								
SATT_12_ Priority	.052	.230	.180	.360**	.363**	1.000							
SASC_15_ Work	.454**	.374**	.296*	.210	.501**	.153	1.000						
SASC_17_ Priority	.350**	.598**	.415**	.482**	.487**	.416**	.549**	1.000					
TE_ Process	.293*	.333**	.300*	.210	.372**	.190	.494**	.463**	1.000				
TE_ Tool	.202	.329**	.282*	.295*	.347**	.300*	.213	.492**	.683**	1.000			
TE_ Total	.267*	.357**	.311*	.279*	.383**	.281*	.370**	.502**	.913**	.907**	1.000		
SI_ Priority	.436**	.812**	.560**	.770**	.537**	.612**	.441**	.838**	.404**	.468**	.473**	1.000	
SI_ Work	.814**	.650**	.725**	.419**	.740**	.222	.747**	.583**	.476**	.331**	.429**	.638**	1.000

*p <.05. ** . p <.01.

Phase 1 Results Summary

The Phase 1 section of Chapter 4 provided key findings regarding school administrators' work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation. As discussed in Chapter 3, the reliability analysis of the questionnaire confirmed a strong correlation within the dimensions as well as outside the dimensions of the school improvement and teacher-evaluation constructs but due to the limited response rates at the lowest ends of the response frequencies, overall the difference of the *items* within the scales was lost.

Returning to the first and second hypotheses, Phase 1 analyses revealed no statistically significant differences in school administrators' perceptions of their work and priorities in school improvement or teacher-evaluation based upon school administrator background characteristics or school organizational context. Limited differences at the dimension level may be due to school administrators answering in a socially desirable manner, although the assumption was made that participants would answer honestly to the questionnaire. In order to address these surprising Phase 1 non-significant results, Phase 2 interviews were organized around concepts developed through Phase 1 *item*-level clusters that individually had an *item* effect size of 0.5 or higher as well as teacher-evaluation themes that emerged from the questionnaire open-response section.

The third hypothesis focused upon the linear relationship between leadership constructs (i.e., instructional leadership, inclusive leadership, teacher-school administrator trust, and school administrator support for change) to perceived implementation of the teacher-evaluation process, and tool. In Phase 1, associations between individual school leadership constructs and teacher-evaluation constructs were low to moderate with *School Administrator Support for Change* (e.g., support for teachers taking risks, making change happen, providing teachers with materials,

addressing poorly performing teachers) being the highest leadership priority and *School Administrator-Teacher Trust* (e.g., caring about teachers and their professional development, being trustworthy and respectful) being the highest leadership work associated with implementation of teacher-evaluation. The school improvement priority total and school improvement work total also had moderate associations with teacher-evaluation.

Development of Phase 2 Interview Questions Based upon Phase 1 Data

After examining differences within school administrators' work and priorities at the construct level where no statistically significant differences were found, Phase 1 findings were bolstered by theory, literature, and qualitative data provided through the investigation of three themes that emerged from the questionnaire's open response section and clustered significant *items* that had differences or effect sizes computed at 0.5 (half a standard deviation +/-) or higher, with special attention provided to effect sizes of 0.75 (three quarters of a standard deviation +/-). Organization of the Phase 2 interview protocol is provided in Table 16. Phase 2 findings, collected from the formal interviews conducted with nine purposefully selected school administrators, is provided in the next section.

Phase 2 School Administrator Background Descriptions

Phase 2 findings provided further clarification for the study's overarching research question, "What is the relationship between school administrators' work in school improvement and the perception of the implementation of the teacher-evaluation process, and how does this relationship influence school administrators' leadership work?" Using "extreme case" and homogenous sampling, nine school administrators' responses addressed the study's sixth

research question, “How do school administrators’ reflections on their leadership work in both school improvement and teacher-evaluation illuminate and extend understanding of emergent findings in Phase 1?”

Table 16

School Administrators' Interview Protocol Questions Based Upon Phase 1 Data

Interview question categories	Interview question priority	Align to study's research question	Align to IL items	Align to InL Items	Align to SATT Items	Align to SASC Items	Align to TE Items	Align to SI / TE link	Align to TE purpose
Question #1: Open response theme	Student-growth data	R6	IL_4_04 IL_6_01				TE_24_02 TE_24_09 TE_25__6	X	X
Question #2: Open response theme	Common indicators of TE process	R6					TE_24_02 TE_25_03		X
Question #3: Open response theme	Common expectations for non-tenured & tenured	R6					TE_25_01 TE_25_02 TE_25_07	X	X
Question #4: SI items	Initiating SI activities	R1, R3, R6	IL_4_ 01[a] IL_4_ 02[b] IL_4_ 04[a] IL-6_01[a]						X
Question #5: SI items	Routines & approach	R1, R3, R6	IL_4_ 03[a] IL_6_ 05[a]	InL_9_01[a] InL_9_02[a]		SASC_ 17_04[a]			
Question #6: SI items	Managing & tracking data	R1, R3, R6	IL_4_04[a] IL_6_01[a]				TE_24_ 02[a] TE_24_ 09[a]		
Question #7: SI items	Ushering in change	R1, R3, R6				SASC_15_01[a] SASC_17_02[a]	TE_25_ 08[a]		
Question #8: SI items	Looking out for welfare of teachers	R1, R3, R6			SATT_ 10_01[a] SATT_ 10_02[b] SATT_ 12_01[a] SATT_ 13_01[b]				

(continued)

Table 16 (continued)

Interview question categories	Interview question priority	Align to study's research question	Align to IL items	Align to InL Items	Align to SATT Items	Align to SASC Items	Align to TE Items	Align to SI / TE link	Align to TE purpose
Question #9: TE items	Extra time for TE process	R2, R6					TE_24_ 06[a] TE_24_ 07[a] TE_24_ 08[a]		
Question #10: TE items	Removing poorly performing tenured teaches	R2, R4, R6				SASC_17_06[a]	TE_24_01[b] TE_24_ 03[a] TE_24_ 04[a] TE_25_ 07[a]		
Question #11: TE items	Experience as teacher-influence on TE	R2, R4, R6					TE_24_ 05[a] TE_25_02[b] TE_25_ 03[b]		
Question #12: SI / TE connection	Effect of TE on school leader (a) supports (b) hinders	R5, R6			SATT_ 10_01 SATT_ 10_02		TE_25_01 TE_25_02 TE_25_03	X	
Question #13: District TE purpose	Three purposes for TE	R5					ALL of TE_24 and TE_25		X

[a]Effect size of .5 (or one-half of a standard deviation) or above to determine significance.
[b]Effect size of .75 (or three-quarters of a standard deviation) or above to determine significance.

As previewed in Chapter 3, the interviewees either were purposefully selected as an atypical school administrator (*n* = 6 or 67%) or due to being a school administrator at a specific level of school (*n* = 3 or 33%). Collectively the nine interviewees represented the school administrator demographic and school organizational variables targeted in the questionnaire. Specifically, based upon school administrator demographics, the interview sample included both males (*n* = 3) and females (*n* = 6), school administrators with teaching experiences from 1-10 years (*n* = 2), 11-20 years (*n* = 6), and 21+ years (*n* = 1), as well as school administrators with varying years of administrative experience including both five or less years (*n* = 3) or more than 5 years (*n* = 6). Reviewing school organizational variables, the interview sample contained school administrators from multiple levels of schooling including preschool (*n* = 1), elementary (*n* = 3), middle school (*n* = 2), and high school (*n* = 3), different sizes of school with either 350 or less students (*n* = 1), 351-800 students (*n* = 4), or 801+ students (*n* = 4). The most homogeneous variable among the interviewees was student mobility with all but one school administrator having less than 20%. Although collectively the nine school administrators represented all variables of the research study, individually each school administrator provided a personalized perspective to extend Phase 1 findings. An individual summary of each school administrator's professional background and his/her school's improvement priorities is provided below. Pseudonyms were utilized for both school administrator interviewees and their aligned school buildings.

Ms. Armory (Interview #1) has been a high school dean at Truman High School for the past four years. This was her first administrative position. Previously, Ms. Armory had been a classroom teacher and a district-wide coordinator. Truman High School's predominant student population is middle to upper middle social economic class. Ms. Armory felt there were "pockets

of poverty" in the overall student population that were not academically addressed due to lack of Title I funding. In regard to school improvement priorities, Ms. Armory shared that English Language Learners (ELLs) were the school's focus because most ELL students needed additional support. Ms. Armory shared approaches used by Truman High School to address the needs of ELL students included in the "Late Program" tutorials conducted by high school counselors during the lunch hour primarily with freshman students who were "at-risk" of failing graduation required courses. Additionally, several special education teachers provided reading and study skills intervention sessions for both students with and without Individual Education Program (IEP) placements.

Ms. Chevy (Interview #2) was ending her first year as principal at Gateway Preschool. During the past 10 years, Ms. Chevy has had various district administrative roles but due to budgetary cuts was reassigned to Gateway School as a principal. Ms. Chevy has 25 years of teaching experience in the district, all in the early primary grades. When asked about school improvement initiatives, Ms. Chevy paused and then shared that she found it difficult to define a school-wide initiative at Gateway Preschool due to limited school-wide student-learning data. In the future, Ms. Chevy hopes to find ways to develop school improvements efforts that are organized around principal-teacher conversations focused upon individual student instructional improvement and kindergarten readiness.

Ms. Florence (Interview #3) is currently in her 13th year as the elementary principal at Nightingale School. Prior to becoming an elementary principal, Ms. Florence was a classroom teacher for many years in the elementary grades. Nightingale School has a diverse student population, with over 70% of students being eligible to receive free or reduced lunch and 60% of the student population being Hispanic. Nightingale had two new district programs for which

school improvement goals had been developed. The programs were Students within a School (SWAS) for targeted Hispanic students in bilingual classes and an instructional learning program for pre-kindergarten students who were both autistic and functioning at low intellectual levels. Each program brought changes in staffing, schedules, and reallocation of human and material resources, so Ms. Florence made both programs school-wide priorities for all staff. Due to having a fairly stable staff, Ms. Florence felt that the school improvement decisions that were made at Nightingale were made as a whole school team, with much give-and-take between the different members of the staff. Ultimately, Ms. Florence felt that respect, trust, and commitment between the teachers and her were required for student improvement to happen.

Ms. Whitten (Interview #4) has been a high school principal for seven years, with the past two years at Highwire High School. Ms. Whitten had 7 years of teaching experience as well as previous work experience outside of education before becoming a school-level administrator. Highwire High School was a "turnaround school," which means that the school's average student achievement rate was one of the lowest in the state of Illinois. Highwire High School's learning improvement priorities were reading and math, with a special emphasis on revamping the entire freshman program in both content areas. Due to rapid "turnaround" student-learning improvement timelines, Ms. Whitten believed that change would need to happen fast at Highwire High School, whether the staff was ready or not.

Mr. Majors (Interview #5) replaced the principal who had been abruptly removed from Stockton Yards Middle School at the end of school last year. Mr. Majors had 11 years of experience as an assistant principal, at both middle and high school level, before coming to Stockton Yards. Prior to becoming an administrator, Mr. Majors had spent 8 years as a teacher at Stockton Yards Middle School. When Mr. Majors returned to Stockton, he felt that there was

"venom in the air" within the school. Many things had been left undone by the previous school administrator and were over due to central office but Mr. Majors felt that his first priority as the school leader was to address the lack of respect and rapport within the school environment through ongoing listening-learning sessions with staff and students.

Mr. Taylor (Interview #6) has been an administrator for 15 years, 7 years as principal of Brigadoon Elementary and 8 years as a district-level curriculum director. Before becoming an administrator, Mr. Taylor was a teacher for 11 years. When asked about his school improvement initiatives, Mr. Taylor shared that the staff was focusing on word study, vocabulary, and comprehension to collectively help both ELL and non-ELL students make literacy gains.

Mr. Fontaine (Interview #7) has been an administrator in both private and public settings for 16 years, with the last 3 years being at Lincolnwood Elementary. Before becoming an administrator, Mr. Fontaine had been a teacher for 18 years. The Lincolnwood Elementary school improvement focus is literacy, especially emphasizing reading and writing for communication purposes. Mr. Fontaine felt that one of his greatest leadership assets was his ability to coach staff around school priorities. Based upon requirements of the district or school, Mr. Fontaine believed that teachers often needed to be "coached into positions and instructional practices" that were the "just right" for the school. Helping people "find the right teaching role or be part of a school or grade level initiative" was a key part of Mr. Fontaine's leadership approach.

Ms. Bright (Interview #8) has been the Middleton Middle School principal and assistant principal for the past 20 years and previously spent 12 years as a middle school teacher. When asked about Middleton's primary focus on school improvement, Ms. Bright had broad priorities for literacy for which all staff, including specialists such as vocal music, band, physical

education, art, and foreign languages, were involved. Ms. Bright believed that student-learning was not just about course structure and curriculum objectives but was also dependent upon the relationship between teachers and students as well as professional relationships within individual content teaching teams.

Ms. Target (Interview #9) is in her first year in the district as well as her first year as an assistant principal at Normal High School. Prior to coming to Riverton School District, Ms. Target had been an assistant principal and high school teacher in another state for five years. For Ms. Target, academic priorities within her high school department were all focused upon engagement of student learners in 21st century learning concepts.

Phase 2 Overarching Themes and Aligned Sub-themes

In order to address the sixth research question, an analysis of the interview data was conducted using constant comparision method with deductive coding to develop three themes (Bogden & Biklen, 2003; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Classical content analysis was also used to help guide the development of the three themes that emerged from 11 sub-themes based upon school administrators' reflections of their leadership work in both school improvement and teacher-evaluation (Table 17). Themes evolved based upon school administrators' responses to multiple questions describing the complexity of the phenomenon. Guided by Phase 1 findings that were utilized to construct the *School Administrators' Interview Protocol* (Appendix B), Phase 2 qualitative findings evolved through school administrators' perspectives, contradictory evidence, and described priorities for work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement.

Table 17

Phase 2 Themes and Aligned Sub-themes Based Upon School Administrators' Interview Responses

Phase 2 themes and aligned sub-themes based upon codes	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	CODE TOTAL
Theme 1: Evolving priorities for measuring teacher effectiveness														
Sub-theme 1: Levels of teaching performance			6		2				1		1		5	15
Sub-theme 2: Perceptions for using student-growth data	14					3								17
Sub-theme 3: Different types of student-growth data	15	1		1	1	1						1	1	21
Sub-theme 4: Ramifications of using student-growth data	5			2	2	9						2		20
Theme 2: Changing roles and responsibilities of school administrators														
Sub-theme 5: School administrators' new work in teacher-evaluation		17	2	2			1		6	10		6	10	54
Sub-theme 6: School administrators' new work in school improvement				7	14	4	10	5	3	2	1	5	5	56

(continued)

Table 17 (continued)

Phase 2 themes and aligned sub-themes based upon codes	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	CODE TOTAL
Sub-theme 7: Informal observations as catalyst for change		4					1		1	1		1		8
Sub-theme 8: Supporting teacher leadership				2	2	2	1			3		1	5	16
Theme 3: Foundational Relationships between Stakeholders														
Sub-theme 9: Relationship between school administrators and teachers			2	2			2	2		1	2	2	3	16
Sub-theme 10: Relationship between school administrators and central office		2		1	4	1		1	4	1		2	6	22
Sub-theme 11: Relationship between school administrators and teacher union			1				1			2	1		3	8
INTERVIEW QUESTION CODE TOTAL	34	24	11	17	25	20	16	8	15	20	5	20	38	254

Theme 1: Evolving priorities for measuring teaching effectiveness. The first theme, *Evolving Priorities for Measuring Teacher Effectiveness,* emerged from Phase 2 data that addressed the contradictory Phase 1 findings regarding school administrators' implementation of the new district teacher-evaluation process. As described in Chapter 2, national and state teacher effectiveness policy requires districts to include both teaching practice and student-growth metrics in local teacher-evaluation plans. As Riverton School District moves toward inclusion of both teacher effectiveness metrics in the local teacher-evaluation plan, Theme 1 described school administrators' perceptions and actions for addressing the district's evolving teacher effectiveness priorities.

Two questions in the interview protocol, Question 2 and 3, specifically focused upon understanding how the district's teacher effectiveness indicators and expectations were internalized by Riverton's school administrators. Phase 1 open response findings reported that 48 school administrators (74%) felt the district needed to develop more clearly defined teacher-evaluation expectations, procedures, and tools. This finding was in direct conflict with findings in the teacher-evaluation section of the Phase 1 questionnaire, where school administrators on average agreed or strongly agreed that the current teacher-evaluation process and tool helped to accurately assess teaching practice. Sub-theme 1, *Levels of Teaching Performance Expectations*, described nine school administrators' perceptions regarding current implementation of the district's teacher-evaluation process.

Two additional questions in the interview protocol, Questions 1 and 6, prompted school administrators' thinking regarding divergent Phase 1 findings on the subject of using student-growth data in the district teacher-evaluation process. Phase 1 data reported that school administrators on average mildly agreed or agreed that the current teacher-evaluation process

accurately assessed student-learning/growth based upon teacher performance. This finding was contraditory to school administrators' open responses, where 26% felt that student-growth data needed to be included in a comprehensive teacher-evaluation system and was missing from Riverton's current teacher-evaluation process. Sub-themes 2 through 4, *Perceptions of Student-growth Data, Different Types of Student-growth Data, Ramifications of Using Student-growth Data,* described priorities and challenges for the nine school administrators when using student-growth data as a measure of teacher effectiveness.

Sub-theme 1: Levels of teaching performance expectations. All nine school administrators expressed strong sentiments regarding how teaching performance expectations should be defined and addressed. Ms. Armory stated if administrators in Riverton were individually asked to define effective teaching, there would be very different definitions given by each school administrator. Mr. Major concurred with Ms. Armory by stating bluntly that "at this time I could not differentiate between how the district defined proficient versus distinguished teaching." Ms. Chevy added that the district had given mixed messages regarding changes from past teaching levels of performance[12] to the current teaching levels of performance:[13]

> I find it interesting that [one of the district's teacher-evaluation purposes] focuses around distinguished teacher practice because [central office administrators] are telling us that almost no one is distinguished. Do you know that? They really told [school administrators] that [teachers] will dabble in distinguished but very few live in distinguished.

Due to inconsistent "definitions" for the different levels of performance of teaching within the district, two administrators felt that they had gotten "stuck" with involuntarily transferred

[12] Riverton's past teacher-evaluation plan included three teaching performance levels: unsatisfactory, satisfactory, and excellent.

[13] Riverton's current teacher-evaluation plan includes four teaching performance levels: unsatisfactory, basic, proficient, and distinguished.

teachers who were rated as proficient or higher on paper but in practice were not performing at that level of expectation.

> Ms. Whitten: You were evaluated last year [at another high school] and you received a distinguished rating. I'm in a classroom and have done several informal observations and holy cow, you are not the great teacher that this other building said you were.

Ms. Armory summed up this discrepency in ratings as basically some administrators, just like some teachers, are not doing their job well.

While not one of the administrators believed that the current teacher-evaluation process provided a consistent definition for effective teaching, three administrators felt there were ways to develop consistent expectations for teaching practice at the school level. Ms. Whitten hoped this coming year that she would be able to go with her fellow school administrators into high school classrooms and collectively gather evidence of teaching practice and then talk about what they as administrators had seen so they could all be on "the same page" for defining effective teaching.

Ms. Target felt that it was the school's responsibility to work with teachers to make sure that teachers and administrators had common understanding of the levels of the performance rubric. Ms. Florence suggested that examples of teaching practices should be developed by staff to determine shifts in teaching in order to build shared knowledge of the characteristics and behaviors of high quality teaching.

Mr. Taylor expressed the need for onoing professional development for school administrators around the new district expectations for teacher effectiveness. Mr. Taylor felt that having multiple opportunities to practice observing, rating instruction, and developing rater agreement with fellow school administrators could translate into more consistent and efficient use of the teacher-evaluation system.

Sub-theme 2: Perceptions of student-growth data. Eight of the nine school administrators (89%), when asked what role student-growth data played in the current evaluation process stated, "None!" or "None at this time!" Ms. Target, a new administrator to Riverton School District, was the "odd administrator out" in this area and shared a different response:

> I use a standard growth model in [teacher-evaluation]. A student starts at 0 and the student progresses a year or two, you certainly look at that as a positive. . . .You have to start with basic data where the student is, set reasonable goals as to where the student needs to be, and if the student makes progress half way to that goal at the middle of the year, you are on track with that student.

Ms. Target talked about using grade reports with high school teachers as a "conversation starter" regarding teachers' work with student data. Ms. Target, then, described how she moved from talking about grades with her special education teachers to specifically utilizing data from IEP meetings, psychology testing, eligibility reports, and additional educational testing to look at student-growth over time.

School administrators had divergent views regarding the challenges for using student-growth data within their work in teacher-evaluations. Ms. Armory felt that some high school teachers might want to stop taking honors students because these students were preceived to not make as much learning gains as students in regular track classes due to the "student-growth glass ceiling." Ms. Chevy agreed with Ms. Armory's thinking about high ability students' growth limitations but, shared that at the pre-kindergarten level the reaction from teachers would be quite different:

> The backlash I would get from teachers if I started to use student data, well [the teachers would say] I don't want the lowest kids because my evaluation is based on how much gains my kids get. I know they aren't going to do anything. Actually the high kids are the ones that don't make as much gains. Anyone who knows anything about data could figure that out.

In addition to addressing teachers' perceptions and misconceptions regarding learning gains for certain student populations, Mr. Majors felt that middle school student-growth was closely linked to the rapport teachers had with individual students.

> If I'm going to [get measured by test scores], I want the lowest level math classes because I know I can move [middle school students] because I can relate to them. I get in the dirt with them. I can help them move. Those are the students I can show significant growth with . . . I can promise you!

Ms. Florence and Mr. Fontaine, both elementary principals, hoped that student-growth data could become a shared conversation and responsibility between individual teachers and school administrators. Ms. Florence explained:

> I want some specific reflection questions that [the teachers] can sit by themselves, not a sharing time. Why are you seeing growth? Why are you not seeing growth? Then fine tune into taking the assessments, taking the data from those assessments and planning accordingly. Do we ever follow up on that plan?

In addition to using student data for developing professional teaching goal plans based upon self-reflection, Mr. Taylor believed that a comprehensive teacher-evaluation system must be based in some part on student-growth in order to make teachers accountable for their students' overall learning:

> I think there is a need for [student data] because what it does is, I don't want to say it forces teachers but it certainly requires [teachers] to look at data in a different way. Look at it in an objective way. What are the outcomes that I want my kids to have? What are my overall goals?

Based upon the assumption that student-growth data would be part of the district evaluation plan, the conversation inevitably went to challenges in selecting and utilizing appropriate student-learning measures.

Sub-theme 3: Different types of student-growth data. Eight out of the nine school administrators (89%) had concerns about what type of data would be used, how often, and the amount and type of training that would be provided for both teachers and administrators for

learning how to effectively use student-growth data . Measures, such as grades or grade point averages, common assessments scores in math and reading, and literacy normed assesssments, were the most frequently referenced assessments currently available in the district. Four of the nine school administrators (44%) talked about using student-growth data in a formative manner, once in the fall, the winter, and again in the spring, in order to look at learning over time with both staff and students.

The conversation around student-learning measures moved from what was currently available to what could be appropriate for making future decisions about teaching effectiveness. Mr. Taylor, a former district-level curriculum director, felt that district-wide assessments could be developed not only in the core content areas but also in specialized content areas that could be an enhancement for student-learning in both the specialized learning area and as well as core curriculum:

> We developed a [fine arts] rubric to assess the student's artwork pieces. It was 2D piece, each one was by grade, it was a little different, it was very cool, a great project. I think the key is for [teachers] to use the cross vocabulary terms that can be used in the arts as well as academic vocabulary . . . the key is to use [rubrics] to support kids creating products that demonstrate an understanding of conceptual learning.

Ms. Bright supported Mr. Taylor's thinking for using specialist curriculum and assessments to support core learning for students. Ms. Bright shared how physical education, art, computer, family consumer science, and speech/drama teachers at the middle school level were incorporating reading and writing outcomes into subject area instruction: "[Specialists] do work in math in a simplistic way, calories, heart rate, that type of thing. . . .They also use vocabulary skills, the note taking skills, the writing skills."

Each of the nine school administrators expressed confirmation that student-growth data was a priority at the district level and that the district was quickly moving toward individual student and teacher accountability based upon student-growth data.

> Mr. Majors: The [district] data dashboard is coming and it is going to be wonderful, going to be fantastic, because we can look at our class and look at where [students] are in the fall, then in April look at that growth for individual and class averages.

Ms. Whitten agreed with Mr. Majors' thinking about the importance of the data dashboard for advancing student-learning through teacher's review and regular use student data. Currently at the high school level, if a teacher wants to review individual or classroom student data, the teacher has to wait for school administrators to "pull the data":

> Somebody at the high school level has to wait for [school administrators] to pull the data and it is not effective. We are trying, the district is rolling out the dashboard next year where teachers will be able to pull their own data . . . we will try to do smaller groups, in divisions, learning how to pull the data and then how to actually use it and interpret it.

Specific populations were identified by eight of the nine school administrators (89%) that would need alternative student-learning assessments. These identified populations included ELL students in grades kindergarten through second grade, prekindergarten, and non-core content areas at the middle and high school level. Ideas offered for developing common school or district-based student assessments focused on flexibility and a range of options including computerized, play-based, rubric, and work sample assessment formats that would effectively measure critical learning outcomes.

Sub-theme 4: Ramifications of using student-growth data. All nine school administrators readily agreed that using student-growth data in school improvement and ultimately teacher-evaluation was a "game changer" from past compliancy evaluation practices. Five administrators (56%) expressed optimism that the change would support student-learning. Ms. Armory hoped that use of student-growth data at the high school level would lead to

interesting conversations that encouraged teachers to share what was working in their classrooms and support deprivatization of teaching practice. Ms. Armory emphasized that student data should be used individually and collectively by teachers:

> We are trying to get more from those learning target exams, especially in math . . . 70% of your kids passed, what do you do with the other 30%? We put it on a graph. We put it on the S Drive for teachers to see. [The teachers] didn't like that other people could see how their kids did. It caused a little controversy here. Hopefully we will move to how did you do? What worked best? That will be an interesting conversation . . . but we must go slow.

At the middle school level, both Mr. Majors and Ms. Bright talked about the need to develop data knowledge at the staff level in alignment with the district implementation of student data dashboards. They expressed the need for time to be given for teachers to learn the "shortcuts" and methods for "making data manageable and workable." All nine administrators hoped student-growth data would support further work by grade level teams, departments, and problem-solving teams to develop instructional learning goals to increase student achievement.

> Ms. Target: Teachers are aware of what those numbers mean. They use the data to write the goal. We don't want five or six goals, we want two viable goals and we measure them faithfully and we change as necessary, but [the team] consults each other and consults me before they change goals. We try to build a sense of teamwork, team decisions.

All nine administrators hoped that data dashboards would help core instruction to be systematically monitored and addressed by both teachers and administrators. Ms. Whitten even hoped that understanding and using student data might get administrators and teachers to stop blaming students and instead start looking at ways to change instructional practices.

Theme 2: Changing roles and responsibilities of school administrators. The second theme, *Changing Roles and Responsibilities of School Administrators*, was based upon the school administrators' reflections on seven interview questions that focused upon Phase 1 findings at the *item* level where significant differences among variables in teacher-evaluation and

school improvement constructs were found. Interview protocol questions 4, 5, 7, and 8, focused upon school improvement leadership roles and responsibilities (instructional leadership, inclusive leadership, school administrator-teacher trust, school administrator support for change), while interview protocol questions 9, 10, and 11, focused upon teacher-evaluation process and tools. The seven questions were utilized to delve deeper into the relationship between teacher-evaluation and specific school improvement leadership roles and responsibilities. School administrators were asked to personalize actions taken for moving new initiatives forward as a school leader due to Phase 1 moderate correlation between school administrators' priorities for supporting change and teacher-evaluation ($r = .502$, $p < .01$). School administrators were also asked to describe purposeful work that they engage in for building trust in teacher-evaluation between the school administrator and teacher ($r = .383$, $p < .01$). Additionally, questions 12 and 13 specifically were developed to clarify and personalize Phase 1 moderate relationships between school administrators' overall school improvement priorities and teacher-evaluation ($r = .473$, $p < .01$) and school administrators' overall school improvement work and teacher-evaluation ($r = .429$, $p < .01$).

Four sub-themes were developed in Theme 2 based upon the 134 codes that were captured regarding the shifting roles and responsibilities for administrators in the area of teacher effectiveness. School administrators' beliefs and perceptions of their changing roles and responsibilities in teacher-evaluation were captured in the fifth sub-theme, while the school administrators' evolving work in school improvement was described in the sixth sub-theme.

Two unanticipated sub-themes evolved from the Phase 2 data, *Sub-Theme 7: Informal observations as a Catalyst for Change* and *Sub-Theme 8: Supporting Teacher Leadership*. Sub-themes 7 and 8 had fewer codes and were related more to specific school administrators'

leadership behaviors and approaches than other sub-themes. Both sub-themes described critical resources used by specific school administrators for addressing challenging and changing roles and responsibilities in both school improvement and teacher-evaluation.

Sub-theme 5: School administrators' new work in teacher-evaluation. All nine school administrators talked about shifting away from compliancy-focused teacher-evaluations to using teacher-evaluation as a professional learning opportunity for both the teacher and the school administrator. Ms. Chevy gave context to how far the teacher-evaluation process had come in a short time by sharing a recent memory of a veteran teacher standing up in Riverton High School's auditorium at the "Back to School District Meeting" two years ago:

> I will never forget this. The teacher stands up in front of everyone else in the district, including the superintendent and says, "Right now my evaluation takes five minutes. Why would I want something that takes more than five minutes?"

Ms. Chevy used this story as a way to explain the challenges that exist for moving teacher-evaluation from compliancy to a professional improvement process.

Five of the nine school administrators (56%) felt that improving their own professional leadership skills was critical to increasing teachers' faith in the district teacher-evaluation process. One approach for improving school administrators' skills was to continue to attend monthly professional learning sessions provided by the district that included book studies and skill-building practice with observations and reflective conversations. These skill-building sessions had helped Ms. Armory to increase her ability to use pre-observation conferences as a time to listen and learn what the teacher was doing and then ask what data the teacher would like her to collect during the classroom observation.

Three school administrators (33%) stated that they had started to invite teachers to bring student-learning data to the reflection conference and encouraged the teachers to lead the

conversation about student data. Mr. Majors talked about not going "broad-scope" but instead "helping teachers to finetune specific areas of professional practice based upon what was jointly learned from review of the student data." The pre-and post-observation conferences allowed the school administrators to discuss with teachers key aspects of the lesson, students, and other professional priorities. Ms. Florence believed that the district's common evaluation tools for both observations and pre/post-conversations helped to guide the school administrators in having professional conversations to support shared responsibility between the teacher and school leader regarding instructional practice.

Obstacles exist in the current teacher-evaluation process that hinder using the process for professional sharing and support. Time was a consistent hurdle in communicating and implementing the teacher-evaluation process. Ms. Armory expressed feeling "rushed" to complete the reflection conferences due to the large numbers of non-tenured teachers that she had to evaluate: "Some of my [non-tenured teachers] could sit in here for hours and talk with me. They just want that and I felt bad I couldn't spend that time with them." Ms. Chevy talked about her staff not being appreciative of the time and energy that was put into the teacher-evaluation process by school administrators in support of teacher improvement:

> There is a lack of understanding that administrators do all of this for [teachers] . . . If I had this conversation once, I've had it 10 times. [Teachers] really don't know very much about the new process. I ask, "Have you seen this form?" No clue!

An additional challenge provided by three school administrators (33%) was the district professional goal plan that could be used by tenured teachers who were rated satisfactory or above. The professional goal plan allowed tenured teachers to "opt out" of being evaluated and could instead elect to develop a professional goal plan that had a two-year duration. All nine

school administrators expressed the need to have the flexibility to evaluate tenured teachers on a regular basis, not only when there was a significant problem.

A further challenge provided by administrators was the manner in which the teacher-evaluation process was viewed by some tenured staff. Ms. Florence provided an example of a tenured teacher who had been involuntarily transferred from high school special education to Nightengale Elementary this past year:

> I think that I did five or six informal observations just to get a feel for what was going on there . . . [The teacher] was very unsure of me. She responded on all the evaluations whenever there was an opportunity that she was from high school and new to elementary. I could tell that it was understood to her that I wasn't out to get her but that her teaching was "basic" according to the rubric and not proficient, which she was fine with . . . I wonder when they come from another building how they are evaluated before. Were they burned before and now apprehensive?

All nine administrators insisted that it was important to coach and support teaching improvement for all teachers and, if needed, address a struggling teacher's weak areas. The remediation process needed to begin with a purposeful conversation between the school administrator and teacher about the critical changes in teaching and/or professional practice that needed to be addressed promptly. Ms. Armory insisted that bad teaching did not help anyone, especially students:

> I think that it is very important that the teachers who aren't doing their job, if you feel you can't grow them, you can't coach them, [then] you have to cut them. It is very extremely important to get the right person on the bus.

Ms. Chevy felt that the new teacher-evaluation process did not adequately address the current barriers for removing tenured teachers from the school system. Along that same line, Ms. Bright believed that many school administrators would rather ignore or "pass along" ineffective teachers than deal with the problem themselves.

"Management" was a frequent word used among three school administrators (33%) when asked if there was anything cumbersome or complex about the teacher-evaluation process. Ms. Whitten talked about trying to do a better job managing the process by starting next school year in an organized manner as an administrative team, "We need to be getting in there and looking at the high school calendar for the week and saying somewhere in this craziness, [we] need to fit in three or four evaluations [each]."

Two administrators specifically talked about the importance of managing the teacher-evaluation timelines and letting tenured teachers know by September 30th of each school year whether the tenured teacher was going to be evaluated. According to the teacher contractual agreement, if a tenured teacher was not notified by September 30th each school year that he/she were going to be evaluated, the school administrator could not formally evaluate the tenured teacher that year if the teacher was not "on cycle" to be evaluated, no matter what the tenured teacher did or did not do instructionally. Both administrators who shared this challenge were from large schools (800+ students) and felt that this unreasonable timeline forced school administrators to make important teacher decisions for tenured staff too early in the school year.

Sub-theme 6: School administrators' new work in school improvement. **"**Student data" was a common two-word response for how teachers and school administrators' work was changing in regard to school improvement. All nine school administrators agreed that data werecritical to moving school improvement forward. At Middleton Middle School, which is an "achieving school," Ms. Bright felt a lack of urgency by some staff to improve their instruction as well as a lack of appropriate funding from central office to support school improvement issues. Ms. Bright used individual and aggregate student data to help advocate for the needs of students with teachers and central office administrators: "I tell them, yes, [Middleton Middle

School] knows which kids are born with the onesy with the University of Illinois embroidered on it, but we have other kids that no, parents haven't even graduated." On the reverse side, lack of common student-learning data was a stumbling block for Ms. Chevy at the pre-kindergarten level in building teacher interest and commitment to change.

The limited number of willing and committed teachers at the high school level to help move school improvement efforts forward was a challenge expressed by Ms. Armory. Too much was asked of too few in regard to putting in extra time for different aspects of the school improvement projects. Another high school challenge shared by Ms. Whitten was not having consistent administrative leadership for school initiatives. Highwire High School had lost five administrators in the last six years, six out of the seven years that the school had been "turning around," and the administrators who remained were often put in charge of targeted improvement areas for which he/she did not have sufficient content knowledge.

> Ms. Whitten: I'm assigning my assistant principal who does have the math background [to be the math/science chair] and I'm clearing everything else from him. He is going to change our math stuff.
>
> Interviewer: So he came literally through Highwire High School's system?
>
> Ms. Whitten: He did. He came here as a math teacher and then became the math/science chair, then became the assistant principal and the funny thing is he and I sat in the same office when we both were teachers. We have a long history.

Having a shared commitment and focus between school administrators at the building level was expressed as a key to school improvement success by three administrators. Mr. Fontaine thought at the elementary level that a critical leadership priority was to enable teachers to learn from each other as well as the administrator on school improvement initiatives:

> I want to build a team who wants to help each other grow, to say to each other, "Hey, I think I can benefit from watching you teach and I even think I can help you a little bit." I'm not there yet [with this staff].

Working together as a school administrator-teacher team was echoed as a critical priority in school improvement by other school administrators. Due to budget cutbacks, Ms. Armory had to become creative at the high school level in finding time for teachers to work together to focus upon using quarterly target tests to assess learning outcomes and results as a team. At the other end of the grade level spectrum, collaborating and sharing ideas at the prekindergarten level had become a point of resistence.

> Ms. Chevy: More experienced teachers think they don't have to bring anything to the table. "Why should I meet and give someone else my ideas?" Well, because you are a senior teacher. That would be my answer and not an answer that they would like and sometimes senior teachers don't also have the best ideas.

Ms. Florence and Ms. Bright echoed their colleagues belief that "school improvement" had to become "teacher improvement". Suggested approaches included professional learning at staff meetings, book studies or review of research articles, or opportunities for instructional practices to be modeled by "gurus in the building" or someone in the district, such as a district reading coach or mentor.

Ms. Whitten and her administrative team, along with the other school administrators interviewed, tried to get into the classrooms at least three times a week for non-evaluative "learning visits" where each administrator looked for student engagement based upon specific teaching practices (e.g., teacher direct instruction, teacher showing a video and stopping for student discussion, teacher working with students in a small group).

> Ms. Whitten: [After the learning visits], we come back and we share our data as an adminstrative team and then go out at the following staff meeting and say these are the learning visits we saw and this is where we are. Again, teachers aren't real excited about this, like, "So what if we are primarily lecture style?"
>
> Interviewer: Have you seen shifts from the learning visits?
>
> Ms. Whitten: Not yet. So what we are doing is using the book, *Teach Like a Champion*, and we are using that at our divisional meetings to go through how do you do classroom

> management . . . use those higher level thinking questions. We have done it all year. It will be interesting to see what take aways teachers have. I will do a survey for them and I'm going to ask what have you tried.

The linkage between school administrators' instructional practices required by the district such as "learning walks" did not automatically transfer into rapid changes in teachers' classrooms or professional practices. Ms. Target took a slightly different approach for learning visits and informal observations by establishing a regular, announced schedule for these administrative visits to the classrooms. Ms. Target felt that this "structured routine" helped teachers know that she valued their instructional efforts by providing purposeful, focused time in her weekly schedule to be in the classrooms to collect evidence of student engagement and then offer follow-up conversations with teachers about student progress and teacher needs.

Sub-theme 7: Informal observations as a catalyst for change. Informal observations were a minor sub-theme, with only eight codes aligned to this area. The importance of informal observations as a sub-theme did not lie in how many times school administrators talked about using informal observations in teacher-evaluation, but instead in understanding how school administrators used informal observations as a key resource to support their changing work in teacher effectiveness.

Informal observations provided a method for Riverton school administrators to have unannounced, ongoing visits to the classroom for evaluation purposes. Informal observations documented teaching practice and could be followed with a reflective conversation between the school administrator and teacher. Four administrators (44%) stated that informal observations tended to raise anxiety levels among teachers, even when the process steps had been explained. Ms. Bright thought anxiety regarding informal observations was due to many administrators, including herself, using informal observations to check on teachers who were suspected as

having issues in classroom management or instruction. Ms. Armory concurred that informal observations were used if there were concerns about a teacher's practice. Additionally, Ms. Armory and Ms. Whitten shared that use of ongoing informal observations had been the key teacher-evaluation resource that they had used for dismissing ineffective teachers. Not all school administrators talked about using informal observations to remove teachers, but Ms. Bright shared that when time was short, informal observations were used by school administrators to determine both non-tenured and tenured teacher's level of effectiveness.

Sub-theme 8: Supporting teacher leadership. An unanticipated sub-theme regarding school administrators' changing roles and responsibilities emerged for intentially supporting the development of teacher leadership. This sub-theme was unique, in that it was voiced by only five of the nine school administrators (56%). The five school administrators, Ms. Armory, Ms. Florence, Ms. Bright, Ms. Target, and Mr. Majors, each described strong, positive connections between supporting teacher leadership (sub-theme 8) and their relationship with teachers (sub-theme 9). Interestingly, there was no other common school administrator variable (i.e., gender, years of experience as teachers, years of experience as school administrators, level of school, size of school, student mobility) among all five school administrators beyond these two common sub-themes.

Ms. Florence described how she had witnessed the school faculty pulling together on challenging areas of instruction when the ideas and suggestions had come from the staff and not from her or central office. As Ms. Florence became less directive in instructional leadership, the building's literacy coach was called upon more and more by Ms. Florence and the teachers to provide non-evaluative support for literacy strategies and resources.

Ms. Target concerred that professional and school improvement requirements provided an opportunity for teacher leadership to develop:

> One of our department meetings is on how to write IEP goals. So we have professional development in that area. I have assigned some of my more experienced special education teachers [to help other teachers to write IEP goals]. We have to develop [teacher] leaders. I'm not the only leader.

These five school administrators specifically talked about using the school building's teachers to mentor new or struggling colleagues as a method for developing and supporting teacher leadership.

> Ms. Armory: It is ludicrous how they certify special education teachers at the high school level. They are supposed to teach [everything], and they are saying, "My God, I can't!" so I make sure I put them in an area they feel comfortable and they can build. Some of my young teachers I link to experienced veteran teachers and now [the young teachers] are some of my best teachers. They worked with an experienced teacher and it was a great experience.

In addition to teacher leaders mentoring other teachers, Ms. Florence shared that teacher leaders could be given the opportunity to mentor a school administrator in areas where the formal leader had limited knowledge.

> With my two teachers [as school data coaches], they get the numbers and I'll say to them, because I have the relationship, "I don't get it. How are we going to teach this to the teachers?" They will come back with a hands-on kind of thing . . . I put them in charge. . . They are looked at by me as experts in the field.

Leadership not only was considered to be the responsibility of the formal school administrator but also as a formative position that was based upon looking for educators in the school building that had the knowledge and skills to make student and professional learning happen.

Theme 3: Foundational relationships between stakeholders. The final theme, *Foundational Relationships Between Stakeholders*, emerged in smaller but consistent ways throughout the school administrators' descriptions of their work in teacher effectiveness. The importance of relationships among the school administrator and three key stakeholders came

forward as an unanticipated finding through the stories and priorities shared by school administrators regarding substantial changes in teacher-evaluation and school improvement. Aligned sub-themes emerged regarding the strengths and challenges of different relationships between school administrators and teachers (sub-theme 9), central office administration (sub-theme 10), and the teacher union (sub-theme 11).

Sub-theme 9: Relationships between the school administrators and teachers. Five school administrators (56%), Ms. Armory, Ms. Florence, Ms. Bright, Ms. Target, and Mr. Majors, believed that ongoing opportunities to converse and connect with staff were critical for developing strong trusting relationships between teachers and administrators. These connections were made through learning walks, leaving notes with "thoughts and thanks," purposeful time for professional conversations, and email messages of support. Ms. Bright labeled this type of administrative action as being that of a "Teacher's Principal, where there were no intentional "gotchas" but instead an overall expectation for teachers being capable of "handling the hard, complex work of teaching."

Mr. Majors believed that "ownership by teachers of the teacher-evaluation process" was key. Much of the ownership came through one-on-one conversations about what teachers were finding success with as well as being able to talk together about areas for improvement. Ms. Bright provided an example of an evaluation-reflection conference where a teacher shared a teaching frustration:

> Ms. Bright: All I said to [this teacher was], "Why don't you ask Mike to come in and teach? You guys can do an exchange . . . let me know when it is and I will come in and take Mike's class so that you can observe." There is that opportunity.
>
> Interviewer: Did she do it?
>
> Ms. Bright: Yes, she did. That is very hard for teachers to feel comfortable with, just being able to say, "I don't know how to do this!"

Supporting teachers' professional needs was not the only catalyst for several administrators emphasis on individual and collective support for teachers in the evaluation process. Three school administrators (33%) talked about how their own past experiences of having limited or negative school administrator-teacher relationships, especially around teacher-evaluation, influenced their administrative work for building strong relationships with their teachers. Ms. Target described an example of her work as a school administrator in supporting school administrator-teacher relationships:

> Ms. Target: I met with every single teacher, introduced myself, explained my background, explained my leadership style to them, very collaborative. I met with each of them to write their professional development plan. We made a schedule and I stuck with the schedule. If I was sick . . . we would touch base and reschedule the visit. I never had that as a teacher.
>
> Interviewer: Did you have specific things you used or did to seek input from teachers?
>
> Ms. Target: Yes. What we did as a department, I initiated an internal needs assessment when I arrived so we utilized that data to make decisions about where we need to set goals within the department.
>
> Interviewer: Did you find comonality?
>
> Ms. Target: Yes. We chose two running themes and we focused on those for this year and [will] reassess at the end of the year to see what we need to look at next year.
>
> Interviewer: What were the themes?
>
> Ms. Target: Improve collaboration between general education and special education teachers that was the number one goal. The second goal was to be able to provide professional development. No Child Left Behind students with disabilities have to meet the same expectation as our students without disabilities, so that was our premise for that.

This idea for using professional conversations and team goal planning to address student-learning needs also was brought forward by Mr. Taylor and Mr. Fontaine. They both stressed the importance of the teacher-evaluation and school improvement being focused upon instructional practices that the teachers care about and think will benefit student-learning. Building teacher

commitment and ownership to student-learning was key. Both stated that observation of teaching practice was a viable way to collect information on instruction and then talk with teachers about what was happening in the classroom to benefit student-learning.

Sub-theme 10: Relationships between the school administrators and central office.

Sub-theme 10 addressed the school administrators' preceived relationship with central office administration. This sub-theme evolved throughout the interview process but specifically emerged when school administrators were asked to connect their work in teacher-evaluation with the three district purposes for implementing the new teacher-evaluation system. Seven of the nine school administrators (78%) talked ardently about the challenging relationship that currently existed between the central office administration and school administrators based upon increasing school management requirements, limited voice and choice in addressing school improvement initiatives, and a preceived general lack of faith by central office administrators in school administrators to addresss teacher effectiveness within individual schools.

> Ms. Florence: There is no support coming from the district to support us in [developing distinguished teaching practices] among school staff. That is difficult because you are on your own and again it is another thing to make sure it is in place . . . Bringing in new programs, [the district] providing professional development that [the teachers] don't need . . . The thing is I know my staff. I know what they need. Like my teachers say, treat me like a professional, an expert in the field. I want to be treated that way too. Know that I'm the expert of my staff in my building.

In addition to lack of central office direct support for school administrators, Mr. Majors felt that all the managerial responsibilities required by central office were a hinderance "to being an instructional leader and co-laborer with teachers" due to being out of his building one to two days a week to attend district meetings. On the flip side, Mr. Majors expressed belief that district expectations also brought some degree of district support through resources and professional development.

The response was mixed in regard to the central office organizing school administrator "sub days" to conduct observations, pre-observation conversations, or reflection conversations while a "sub" administrator ran the building. Three school administrators (33%) said that they used this strategy to help them "catch up" with teacher-evaluations. When Mr. Majors was asked about the "sub day" he replied that he did not get the concept of "sub day" because there was no way that he was going to be able to sit in an office somewhere in his school and not be involved in the day-to-day work of his school.

Mr. Fontaine felt limited support from central office for his "zero dollar title building" due to having no decision-making power regarding what district-support services were provided to his staff. In his school, the district reading coach came three times a year and did different presentations on literacy strategies, whether his staff needed or wanted these literacy strategies. Specifically, Mr. Fontaine wanted to have some say in the way that district teacher training and support was provided at his school:

> This is my bias. The [school] administrator is going to ensure quality professional staff. While I like the [TEP], I don't feel any less or more pressure on me to make sure we have a teacher here in every classroom to provide quality instruction than I did under the old system. It is a question of integrity. I need time to do [TEP] and [central office administrators] need to trust me and continually train me to do it. TEP is a good program but it is really my integrity that will ensure [quality instruction], not the tool we use.

Building upon the need for school administrators' voice in determining what district resources were provided at the school level, Ms. Bright felt that part of her leadership work at Middleton Middle School was to advocate at central office for specific resources that were important and appropriate for her school, even if it did "burn bridges" between herself and central office administrators.

Sub-theme 11: Relationships between the school admininistrators and teacher union.

A minor sub-theme developed through limited but targeted responses by school administrators

on the relationship between the teacher union and school administrators. There were only eight comments about union leadership throughout all nine interviews. A few issues were brought forward but understanding of the deeper relationship between school administrators and the teacher union in the area of teacher effectiveness still needs to be explored.

One school administator (11%) raised the challenge around the union's control of professional learning time. In Riverton School District, based upon contractual working conditions, teachers were permitted to leave professional meetings after school exactly 75 minutes after the official ending of the student school day.

> Mr. Fontaine: It has handicapped me and I have had to be more effective with my time and make sure the items that are going to be lengthy discussions that everyone needs to have input on are early on my agenda.

The other concern shared by five administrators (56%) focused upon the protected status of tenured staff and how this worked against school administrators being able to address ineffective tenured teaching practice at any time during the school year.

> Mr. Majors: I understand tenure and I don't understand tenure. It works it's own evil magic both ways. Being tenured for some people means, "I'm already tenured . . . I've already put in my time. I went through my pledge years." Others, they are fantastic. They do everything. It is the protection [of tenure] that some administrators don't want to deal with it because it is a hassle. That is wrong.

Tenured staff "protectivism" was a term coined by one school administrator when describing an existing major district hurdle for both district administration and union leadership in moving beyond compliancy teacher-evaluation measures for tenured teachers.

Phase 2 Results Summary

The Phase 2 section of Chapter 4 provided key findings regarding nine school administrators' personalized experiences, beliefs, and understandings that emerged from nine

interviews based upon the questions from the *School Administrator Interview Protocol.* As previewed in Chapter 3, rich, thick descriptions of nine selected administrators' "lived experiences" in school improvement and teacher-evaluation were analyzed and condensed based upon the entire Phase 2 dataset to identify three underlying themes and 11 aligned sub-themes. These themes particularized individual and collective work of nine school administrators in addressing the evolving priorities of teacher effectiveness measures through deep descriptions of the formal school leaders changing roles and responsibilities in teacher-evaluation and school improvement as well as the influence key stakeholder relationships had upon this critical school leadership work.

Theme 1 and the three aligned sub-themes focused upon the school administrators' perceptions and actions for addressing the district's evolving teacher effectiveness priorities utilizing teaching practice standards and student-growth data. While all nine administrators agreed that the district at this time did not have a clearly defined district definition of proficient or distinguished teaching practice, several school administrators felt that work at the school level could be done to help both teachers and administrators get on "the same page" for defining effective teaching practice.

In regard to using student data, eight of the nine school administrators confirmed currently that student-growth data were not used in Riverton's teacher-evaluation process. Interestly, Ms. Target, as a first-year administrator in the district, was the the only school administrator who stated that she was using student-growth data as part of the teacher-evaluation system. Ms. Target was either unaware or electing to appear unaware that student-growth had not been included yet in the teacher-evaluation process. All nine school administrators agreed that the use of student-growth data was inevitable and actually needed to be utilized in order to move

teacher effectiveness priorities forward in the district. The school administrators felt that student data was needed, these school administrators also acknowledged challenges for determining types of data for measuring student-learning, as well as the need for ongoing professional learning for both teachers and administrators in using the district's newly implemented student-data dashboard system.

Theme 2, *Changing Roles and Responsibilities of School Administrators*, contained four connected sub-themes that were developed by merging 134 codes to extend understanding of roles and responsibilities of school administrators in teacher-evaluation and school improvement. In addition, Theme 2 also had two unanticipated sub-themes that were related to specific school administrators' leadership behaviors and approaches to both teacher-evaluation and school improvement.

In regard to school administrators' new work in teacher-evaluation, all nine school administrators described the need to change the teacher-evaluation process from compliancy ratings to professional learning that emphasized effective teaching practices. School administrators framed changes needed in their evaluation work to include increased professional skills in observation and conversation practice as well as increased skill in analyzing student data. Being able to create and manage administrative time to do the new teacher process was a frequent challenge voiced by school administrators. Dealing with ineffective teachers, both non-tenured and tenured, was also described as a priority responsibility and challenge for school administrators.

School administrators' new work in school improvement raised the need for student data to drive and support change in teaching practice. Deprivitizing teaching practice through a focus upon common instructional planning and data analysis was a consistent priority of school

administrators. Conducting learning walks and visits to the classroom to collect and share data on student engagement was a universal priority echoed by all nine school administrators.

Two unintended outcomes of the school administrators' changing work were the use of the informal observations and the development of teacher leadership. Specifically, informal observations provided the school administrator an often negatively preceived, alternative avenue to check and collect evidence of teaching practice through unannounced observations, often prompted due to concerns about a teacher's practice. In regard to development of teacher leadership, a positive connection was revealed between five school administrators' preceived relationships with teachers and the priority that each school administrator placed on development of teacher leadership within their individual buildings.

The third theme, *Foundational Relationships Between Stakeholders*, emerged from descriptions of school administrators' work in relationship with three groups: teachers, central office administrators, and union leaders. The priority that five school administrators placed upon nurturing and consistently developing strong relationships among their teaching staff through shared teaching and student-learning activities affirmed the Phase 1 finding regarding the positive relationship between school administrator-teacher trust and implementation of teacher-evaluation.

Relationships between school administrators and central office as well as union leadership were not well developed and should be further investigated. The prevelant feeling of many school administrators in regard to their relationship with central office administration was one of limited respect, support, and faith in school administrators' ability to do the job that they had been charged to do in teacher effectiveness. In regard to the relationship between school administrators and union leadership, school administrators comments were much more subtle but

specific. Protectivism of tenured staff through current contractual agreements was identied as a "roadblock" if teacher effectiveness was trully going to be addressed in Riverton School District.

Returning to the third hypothesis, which focused upon the linear relationships between leadership constructs (i.e., instructional leadership, inclusive leadership, teacher-school administrator trust, school administrator support for change) to perceived implementation of the teacher-evaluation process and tool, Phase 2 data was used to describe how the teacher-evaluation process influenced nine school administrators' work in school improvement. The responses varied. Three school administrators said at this time the teacher-evaluation process had not influenced school improvement priorities, yet each gave examples of how they thought teacher-evaluation could in the future support school improvement, especially once student-growth is added to the teacher-evaluation system.

Six administrators felt that teacher-evaluation had provided a catalyst for change in school improvement through observations that provided opportunities to talk about teaching and linkages to student-learning, professional teaming using student data, school initiatives linked to teacher professional goals, and support for a shared culture of learning between adults and students. This response seemed to support the moderate relationship that was found in Phase 1 between school administrators' overall school improvement priorities and teacher-evaluation ($r = .473$, $p < .01$) and school administrators' overall school improvement work and teacher-evaluation ($r = .429$, $p < .01$).

In chapter 5, I return to the purpose of the study and discuss the extent to which the study's findings support it. I also describe the overall findings from Phase 1 and 2 sections of Chapter 4, limitations of the study, as well as the implications and recommendations of this study for research, policy, and professional practice.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Implications

This explanatory, sequential mixed-method study sought to (a) understand the relationship between school administrators' work in implementing the teacher-evaluation process and leading school improvement and (b) to examine the extent to which school administrators' leadership work in school improvement was influenced by implementation of the teacher-evaluation process. The findings from both phases of the study addressed the study's overarching question: What is the relationship between school administrators' work in school improvement and the perception of the implementation of the teacher-evaluation process, and how does this relationship influence school administrators' leadership work? Considered as a whole, data from this study provided the following answer: When school administrators were asked about their work and priorities in school improvement and teacher-evaluation, administrators responded that on average this work was an important priority and that they spent a large amount of time doing school improvement and teacher-evaluation work as school leaders. However, when individual school administrators discussed specific aspects of their work in school improvement and teacher-evaluation, often contradictory, personalized responses were given regarding how school administrators' roles and responsibilities in teacher-evaluation and school improvement were changing based upon the district's evolving definition of teacher effectiveness and the relationships that school administrators had with key stakeholders.

Overarching findings about these changes in school administrators' work will be discussed in more detail in the next section. Limitations of the overall study will also be described in this chapter. The chapter concludes with implications and recommendations regarding this study's findings in relationship to research, policy, and professional practice.

Overarching Findings in Defining Relationships Between School Administrators' Work in School Improvement and the Teacher-evaluation Process

This study focused upon the relationship between school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement in one large, urban district in Illinois. This district was purposefully selected because it contained multiple schools and school administrators with diverse background characteristics. Thus this school district provided a useful population for examining school administrators' work through multiple school improvement and teacher-evaluation dimensions. However, these overarching findings are suggestive due to the study's small sample size (n = 66), being situated in one district, and using cross-sectional versus longitudinal data.

Evolving priorities for measuring teaching effectiveness. District-wide consistency in defining and implementing the teacher-evaluation was a key issue that emerged from Phase 1 data and was explored in Phase 2 through two separate but connected ways: first looking at school administrators' perception regarding how the district currently defined teaching levels of performance and then the district's current use of student-growth data within the teacher-evaluation process. Phase 1 data did not "tease out" statistically significant differences in school administrators' perceptions of their work and priorities in school improvement or teacher-evaluation based upon school administrator background characteristics or school organizational context as had been predicted in the study's first and second hypotheses. Instead, Phase 1 and 2 found that on average school administrators had similar overall priorities for their work in both teacher-evaluation and school improvement but varied to some degree in their approach to this critical leadership responsibility.

A majority of school administrators in Phase 1 felt that the district needed to define more clearly the teaching practice standards and student-growth data that would measure teacher

effectiveness in the district. Research supports that teachers should be well informed of the district evaluation purposes as well as teaching and student measurement criteria that will be used to rate teachers' professional practice (Kyriakides, Demetriou, & Charalambous, 2006; Stanton & Matsko, 2010; Synder, 2001).

Teacher-evaluation literature describes a complex interaction of will, skill, and school context for explaining school administrators' methods for determined ratings for teacher-evaluation. Milanowski and Kimball (2009) shared that a district's teacher-evaluation process could be a "weak situation" (p. 63) for evaluators, meaning that individuals do not share a common perception of what is expected of them and, therefore, fall back to using intuition or gut-feelings about teachers when rating teaching practice.

To move a weak situation to a strong situation, high levels of accountability need to be supported and confirmed through ongoing evaluators' professional learning and application. Too often evaluator training has emphasized management of the task rather than focused upon development of evaluation accuracy or quality of feedback. Milanowski and Kimball (2009) clarified that "all of these factors contribute to a situation that allows unique combinations of evaluator and context factors to govern decision-making" (p. 63).

It also is important to acknowledge relational factors that influence evaluators' ratings. The study's third hypotheses focused upon the linear relationship between leadership constructs to perceived implementation of teacher-evaluation. Teacher-evaluation's low to moderate correlation with individual school leadership constructs did not support the conceptual framework projection. Based upon the literature, *Instructional Leadership* was projected to be the critical leadership work in teacher-evaluation and therefore should have had the strongest association but it did not ($r = .267$, $p < .05$). *Instructional Leadership* was superseded by *School*

Administrator-Teacher Trust ($r = .383$, $p < .05$). This result supports Wahlstrom and Louis's (2008) research that found trust building is critical as a first action step by administrators during high-stakes accountability in order to foster a culture of shared commitment and reflective inquiry. Conversely, school administrators also know that they have to work with teachers after the evaluation has been completed and even with appropriate evaluator training, school administrators may be tempted to inflate ratings in high-stakes situations in order to maintain collegiality (Halverson et al., 2004; Kimball, 2002; Milanowski & Kimball, 2009; Sartain et al., 2010).

In regard to the national advent of student-growth as a critical aspect for determining and supporting teaching practice, contradictory Phase 1 student-growth data were addressed and clarified in Phase 2 interviews. Interviewed administrators confirmed that the district did not formally use student-growth data to measure teacher effectiveness. With that being said, each of the school administrators, along with state and national policymakers and researchers (e.g., Aaronson et al., 2003; Gordan, et al., 2006; Nye et al., 2004; Rivkin et al., 2005), agree that student-growth data is a "game changer" in teacher-evaluation and needs to be an important instructional leadership responsibility when ensuring teacher effectiveness.

While local and national educational logic may support the concept that human capital performance metrics should focus attention on the district's ultimate goal—improved student outcomes, challenges arise for determining appropriate types and approaches for collecting student data to measure student-learning for high stakes decisions. State and national policy organizations encourage adopting multidimensional measures of teacher effectiveness through information "dashboards" that allow all users to access relevant, timely data to help assess and improve student-learning (i.e., teacher instruction). Educational policy recommends careful

planning of data systems that meet the needs of all identified stakeholders in order to accurately assess teacher performance linked to effective teaching (BMGF, 2010; NCCTQ, 2009).

All nine school administrators, 1 pre-kindergarten, 3 elementary, 2 middle school, and 3 high school, that were interviewed were adamant that administrators and teachers needed to have ongoing professional learning opportunities to practice using the district's new student data dashboard system before using this tool for high stakes teacher effectiveness decisions. Professional learning could be provided through school-based instructional data teams, intensive data management training for mentors and coaches who could, in turn, support their professional peers, or intensive data induction "boot camps" for administrators and teachers (BMGF, 2010).

Changing roles and responsibilities in teacher-evaluation and school improvement. The study's third hypothesis predicted that there would be a positive, linear relationship between leadership constructs and perceived implementation of the teacher-evaluation process. Phase 1 data confirmed a positive, significant relationship overall between school administrators' work and priorities in teacher-evaluation and school improvement. In Phase 2, six of the nine school administrators further clarified that teacher-evaluation provided a "catalyst for change" in school improvement by providing opportunities for ongoing observations, connected conversations about teaching and student-learning, and teaming around student data. These findings support research that confirms the greatest improvements in schools' work can be found in the organizational strength of all the school improvement supports being interwoven through the school administrator's and staff's collective work around learning improvement (Knapp, et al., 2010; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Sebring et al., 2006).

Both Phase 1 and 2 data highlighted school administrators' commitment to move the district evaluation process away from compliancy to a professional growth model. In the past 10

years, the district has put a great deal of time, energy, and attention to developing a new teacher-evaluation process and school administrators seems to be "on board" with the new direction that the teacher-evaluation process is headed. Phase 2 data revealed that the school administrators overall were very positive about the district sponsored professional learning on teacher-evaluation but there still is a consistent need for further support in developing skills around observation data collection, professional reflection conversations, and analysis of student data. Limited ongoing support for evaluator learning needs was highlighted in Chapter 2 as a key challenge for evaluators using a teacher-evaluation process accurately to measure teacher effectiveness (Ashby & Krug, 1998; Blase & Blase, 1999; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Halverson & Clifford, 2006; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009; Nelson & Sassi, 2005; Sartain et al., 2010; Tziner et al., 2001).

Several school administrators viewed professional goal plans as a challenging part of the teacher-evaluation process. Three school administrators viewed the professional goal plans as a way for tenured teachers to "opt out" of the formal evaluation process for a two-year period. Two other administrators felt that the professional goal plans provided an opportunity for the evaluator and teacher to sit down and create a shared plan that addressed school priorities and student-learning. The latter view of professional goal setting has been supported by research as a direct effect that leadership can have on students' academic achievement through direct work with teachers (Fenwick, 2001; Witziers et al., 2003). School administrators responded during both Phase 1 and 2 that removing low-performing teachers, either non-tenured or tenured, was priority work as a school leader. Removing a tenured teacher was described by some administrators in Phase 2 as a time consuming, cumbersome process, although research confirms that the school administrator must be willing to eliminate critical barriers to collegial trust by

removing “diverse personalities and incompetent teachers” and “work to assemble a faculty that is generally respectful, caring, and competent” (Kochanek, 2005, p. 8).

An unanticipated finding was the manner in which informal observations were used in the teacher-evaluation process. Interviewed school administrators described informal observations as an effective and efficient way for school administrators to check and collect evidence of teaching practice. Due to informal observations being unannounced and unlimited, three school administrators shared that novice and veteran staff often expressed distrust in the use of informal observations due to the process being viewed as a way for school administrators to move teachers into the remediation process more expediently. Tschannen-Moran (2004) found that school administrators in high-trust schools supported trust formation by shaping a cooperative culture, creating time and structures that support collaboration, establishing norms for interaction, and intervening to help resolve conflicts. The use of informal observations within the current teacher-evaluation process could actually be working against the development of a collaborative culture or a shared expectation for teaching. The process for using informal observations should be reviewed in order to assure that this resource is not viewed or used as a road-block for developing trust and commitment among veteran teachers to the teacher-evaluation process.

The study’s third hypothesis predicted that some leadership constructs would have stronger relationships to teacher-evaluation than other leadership constructs. This hypothesis was confirmed. The Phase 1 lead school improvement construct priority associated with teacher-evaluation was *School Administrator Support for Change*. School administrator’s support for change, as the facilitator of improvement has three dimensions, managerial responsibilities, instructional leadership, and inclusive/facilitative priorities. The school administrator utilizes

these three change dimensions to nurture individual staff agency and build overall school capacity (Bryk et al., 2010). Aligned to school administrators' priority for supporting change was *School Administrator-Teacher Trust*. School administrator-teacher trust had the strongest school improvement work association with teacher-evaluation. As a foundational support for building school capacity, relational trust has been identified by many research studies to enable (a) teachers' willingness and efforts to innovate in the midst of reform initiatives, (b) public problem-solving within schools, (c) social controls that develop within teacher communities, and (d) teacher commitment and attachment to the school and its mission (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Cosner, 2009; Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

Actions described by school administrators in Phase 2 to enable change while building trusting relationships included supporting ongoing professional conversations, working with teams to use data to inform professional practice, and offering differentiated professional learning opportunities. Ultimately these actions were undertaken by school administrators to support enabling structures in which teachers could solve ongoing problems, engage in professional conversations, and learn from instructional challenges without concern for conflict or reprimand (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001).

Human Resource Theory in the form of Theory X (management directing and controlling) or Theory Y (management enabling self-direction and self-control) could be seen playing out in the work of nine formal school leaders through their conversation about informal observations, learning walks, student data review, staff meetings, and professional learning supports to either enable or to control the professional learning environment ((McGregor, 1957). Each school administrator expressed that he or she was working hard to improve the professional learning capacity within his or her building. In studying the rich, detailed descriptions of "how"

professional support work was provided by individual school administrators, single or double-loop learning behaviors could be identified through professional interactions aimed at improving teaching and student-learning between the school administrator and teachers (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Argyris, 1990).

A unique leadership priority that supported double-loop learning emerged from five of the nine school administrators' interviews. This leadership priority was developing teacher leadership. Interestingly, there were no common school administrator background or organizational variables among the five school administrators, there was the common priority for developing and sustaining teacher leadership as a viable resource for professional learning.

Teachers in formally designated leadership roles have been found to have significant association to improved professional learning in staff meetings, individual teacher learning, and collective leadership (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008). This promising leadership practice is also supportive of Marks and Printy's (2003) conclusion that, when instructional leadership is shared among the teachers *and* the principal, the influence of the combined efforts on the quality of pedagogical practice is significant. These five administrators found a variety of ways to empower teacher leadership in their buildings, both formally through data and literacy coaching positions, and informally through mentoring and staff meeting sharing.

Foundational relationships between the school administrator and key stakeholders. There was a strong connective thread that emerged from the Phase 2 school administrators' interviews between the *Teacher Leadership* sub-theme and *Relationships between School Administrators and Teachers* sub-theme. School administrator behaviors that appeared to support teacher commitment to the teacher-evaluation and shared professional learning included providing ongoing feedback, adapting the professional learning process to the school or team

needs, and providing guidance, support, and reassurance to individual teachers and collective teams. One administrator labeled herself as a "Teacher's principal" due to prioritizing relationships with individual teachers and grassroots opportunities between staff to learn from each other. School administrators who were viewed as having positive relationships with his or her staff described normalized instructional improvement work with teacher leaders through development of consistent schedules, processes, and tools to support shared ownership of the professional learning process (Knapp et al., 2010).

As stated in Chapter 4, limited data on the multi-faceted relationship that currently exists between school administrators and central office administrators emerged from the school administrator interviews. Based upon multiple school administrators' descriptions, a low level of trust can be perceived between school administration and central office administration. Most school administrators' commentary added up to feelings of being overwhelmed with the increasing management requirements (Peterson, 1989), frustrated by the limited choice and autonomy in addressing school improvement needs (Elmore, 2000), and discouraged by the general lack of support for school administrators in addressing the complex work around teacher effectiveness (Knapp et al., 2010).

There are no easy, quick fixes for building relational trust between school and district level administrators, but recent research supports central office considerations for shifting priority work away from operational issues to being focused upon instructional support for school administration. The central office practices that were shown to support school administrators' work included (a) developing a cadre of central-office support to intensively assist school administrators in schools and to organize administrative networks clustered around specific instructional needs requested by school administrators; (b) providing specific,

intentional supports for the central office staff who will be assisting school administrators, and (c) defining key leaders in the central office to act as stewards for coordinating and communicating support to both central office and school level administrators (Copland & Honig, 2010).

Understanding the relationship that exists between school administrators and union leadership in regard to teacher-evaluation is sketchy at best. The issue of "protectivism" for tenured staff was brought forward by several school administrators as being an impediment to moving all teachers beyond compliancy measures in teacher-evaluation. Further research needs to be conducted regarding the union leadership's teacher effectiveness priorities and how these priorities align to district and school level teacher effectiveness priorities defined in this study.

Returning to the conceptual framework of school administrators' work in teacher effectiveness. The conceptual framework introduced in Chapter 2 visually described the foundational aspects of the research study: school administrators' leadership work in school improvement, teacher evaluation as an external policy, and mitigating factors in the school's organizational context. I return to the conceptual framework in order to graphically provide the overall implication of this study's findings (Figure 3).

The school administrators' work in leadership was the focus of this study and is centered in the middle of the school improvement framework. The four constructs of school administrators' leadership work (i.e., instructional leadership, inclusive leadership, school administrator-teacher trust, school administrator supported change) are represented. Originally, instructional leadership had been predicted to have the strongest relationship to school administrators' work in teacher evaluation. Phase 1 findings, that were further clarified and extended in Phase 2 interviews, provided that school administrators' priorities for supporting

change in teacher evaluation ($r = .502$, $p < .01$), as well as school administrators' purposeful work for building trust in teacher evaluation ($r = .383$, $p < .01$) had a stronger alignment to school administrators' work in teacher evaluation than instructional leadership. The conceptual framework was updated to demonstrate these findings by having school administrator support for change and school administrator-teacher trust leadership constructs displayed with enlarged, bold print. Phase 1 study findings provided that a moderate relationship existed between school administrators' overall school improvement priorities and teacher evaluation ($r = .473$, $p < .01$) and school administrators' overall school improvement work and teacher evaluation ($r = .429$, $p < .01$), so all leadership constructs continue not to be confined to specific places in the conceptual framework but flow throughout the school administrators' priority work as described in Phase 2 findings.

In the conceptual framework, school administrators' work is framed at the bottom by the school administrator demographics (i.e., school administrator experience, number of years of teaching, number of years as school administrator, gender, educational degree) and the individual school's organizational content (i.e., school level, school size, student mobility). Both school administrator demographics and individual school organizational context were predicted to influence school administrators' leadership work but no statistically significant differences at the dimension level were found. Phase 2 investigated further Phase 1 non-significant results and found that school administrators' approach to school improvement and teacher evaluation was complex and not specifically due to professional demographics or school organizational context. School administrator demographics and school organizational context continue to be placed at the bottom of the school improvement framework but need to be further explored and studied

with a larger school administrator population in regards to their impact on school administrators' leadership work in teacher evaluation.

Figure 3 visually highlights the national and state teacher quality policy assumption in using the teacher evaluation process to increase teacher effectiveness and, therefore, increase student learning. This assumption, while outside of the scope of this study, was inadvertently explored in Phase 2 based upon school administrators' descriptions of their direct work in school improvement and teacher evaluation with teachers. While the direct influence of school administrators' work in school improvement and teacher evaluation upon teachers' work needs to be further studied, school administrators' direct leadership work with teachers is modeled through a solid arrow and school administrators' indirect work with student learning is symbolized through a dotted arrow.

Finally, the original conceptual framework in Chapter 2 modeled the district teacher quality accountability process as a direct input into school administrators' priority leadership work. The solid arrow represented the direct input of central office policy and procedures into school administrators' daily leadership work. Phase 2 findings regarding the implementation of the district teacher evaluation plan by central office administration provided evidence of the district implementing the teacher evaluation with little flexibility and personalized support for school administrators within individual schools. The relationship between school administrators and central office was described by school administrators as one of limited faith in the school administrators' ability and commitment to use the teacher evaluation process to improve teaching practice without external direction and control. The shared work between school administrators and union leadership in teacher evaluation was not fully described and needs to be further explored before being visually represented in the framework.

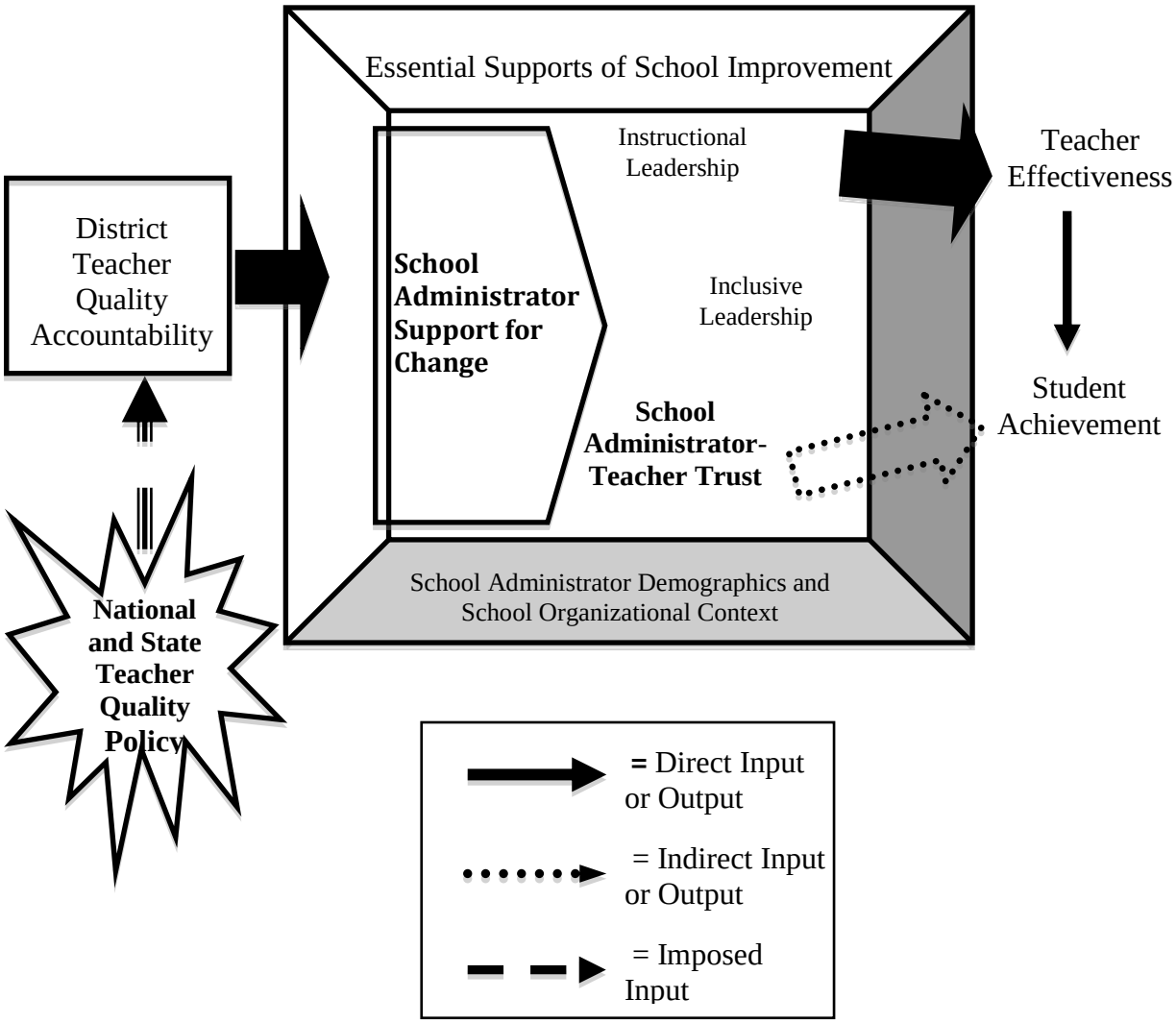

Figure 3. School administrators' leadership work in the school improvement framework.

Study Implications for Research, Policy, and Practice

Implications for research. The next phase of inquiry with the existing questionnaire will be to administer the questionnaire to a larger population in order to determine whether distinctions between the four areas of leadership and teacher-evaluation need to be addressed before using in future research. This Phase 1 finding may be indicative of school administrators not being able to differentiate between the amounts of time or priority that were given to individual school improvement work or teacher-evaluation implementation. High inter-school improvement correlations may indicate one of two things—(a) that the instrument did not sufficiently differentiate between the unique aspects of school administrator leadership work or priorities, or (b) school administrators did not distinguish between work required in different areas of leadership. In other words, it may be difficult to "tease out" the precise components of leadership for either technical or conceptual reasons.

In order to determine whether distinctions between the four areas of leadership and teacher-evaluation needs to be addressed for future research, a factor analysis of the questionnaire should be conducted but was not performed in this study due to small sample size (N = 66). A factor analysis of the questionnaire would help to discover simple patterns in the pattern of relationships among the variables. By administering the questionnaire to a larger sample (N = 150+), a factor analysis could discover if the observed variables could be explained largely or entirely in terms of a much smaller number of variables.

Additionally, further investigation should be conducted into the shared relationship between school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement and teachers' work in professional practice and student-learning. This may be particularly interesting information, as the metrics for measuring teacher effectiveness and school administrator

effectiveness are becoming more closely interwoven based upon shared student-growth data. Future research might also incorporate measures focused upon understanding how school culture and trust influence school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement through a multi-case study approach.

Implications for policy. This study's findings advocate for coherence in leadership policies and professional learning support at the state and district levels in order to move away from compliancy practices and move into targeted, ongoing professional learning on topics that school administrators self-select around teacher effectiveness. As states adopt new professional leadership standards and metrics, state-sanctioned school administrator certification training will be useful in order to support school administrators in the critical work of teacher-evaluation and teacher effectiveness. Possible professional modules for school leadership could include in-person and on-line learning for conducting standards-based teaching observations, supporting reflective teaching conversations, and facilitating student data conferences with fidelity and integrity.

Implications for practice. This study's findings are relevant for spotlighting school administrators' fragile relationship with central office administration regarding implementation and standardization of the teacher evaluation process within a district. By collectively agreeing to the key purposes of the district teacher-evaluation process, school and district administrators are in key positions to work collaboratively to improve teachers' practice. District administrators should develop policy and practices that limit new district initiatives so that school administrators are able to allocate time and attention to addressing teacher effectiveness.

School administrators need to have clearly defined teaching practice standards and student growth data that determines an individual teacher's effectiveness rating. In Illinois,

Senate Bill 7 further clarifies application of PERA 2010 in personnel decisions based upon teaching performance, specifically in high stakes decisions such as attainment of tenure, filling of new and vacant positions, reduction in force steps, and tenured teacher dismissal. High levels of accountability by school administrators for determining district teacher effectiveness requires ongoing evaluators' professional re-tooling of skills and ongoing personalized, district support for school administrators regarding application of the teacher evaluation within individual buildings.

School administrators need the authority and support from district administration to use district and school-based data to inform school instructional and environmental decisions and the ability to flexibly use resources (time, people, money) according to staff and students' priority needs. Strategies for enhancing teacher collaboration and leadership through formal and informal avenues within the district and school should also be considered a local "best practice".

Conclusion

This mixed-method study's quantitative results determined that school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement had a positive, significant relationship but some school improvement work and priorities had stronger relationships than others to teacher-evaluation. The study's complementary qualitative data described how evolving definitions of teacher effectiveness, changing roles and responsibilities in school administrators' work, and foundational relationships with key stakeholders influenced school administrators' "attitudes" regarding the importance and "do-ability" of addressing teacher effectiveness in school environment.

The findings of this study highlight the different approaches that school administrators took in one large, urban district in Illinois when responding to leadership work and priorities

focused upon school improvement and teacher-evaluation. These findings provide empirical support for this study's conceptual framework, which focused upon school administrators' support for change being the facilitating construct to three other leadership constructs when implementing teacher-evaluation as a reform process. This study also confirmed the importance of trust as a foundational construct needing to exist between school administrators and key stakeholders during change imposed by national and local teacher quality policy and measures.

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Appendix A

Defining Relationships Between School Administrators' Work in Teacher Evaluation and Leadership in School Improvement Survey

Dear Participant:

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research project focused upon defining the relationship between school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and leadership in school improvement. Please complete the following questionnaire and then when you have finished, place the completed questionnaire in the envelope and return the envelope to the table at the back of the room. I anticipate that it will take approximately 20-30 minutes of your time to complete the questionnaire.

Your participation in this project is completely voluntary. Your choice to participate will not impact your administrative assignment or your status with the University of Illinois. Your participation will be confidential since your responses will be directly submitted to the researcher. All information that is obtained during this research project will be kept secure and will be accessible only to project personnel. It will also be coded to remove all identifying information.

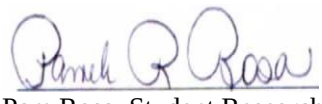
I anticipate no risk to participating in this research other than what might be experienced in normal life and the research may be helpful for improving our understanding of school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement. The results of this study may be used for a dissertation, a scholarly report, a journal article and a conference presentation. In any publication or public presentation pseudonyms will be substituted for any identifying information.

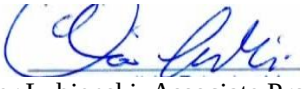
If you DO want to participate in this research, please proceed to responding to the attached questionnaire.

If you do NOT want to participate in the project, please return the questionnaire to the envelope and return the envelope to the table at the back of the room.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to contact my dissertation chair or myself either by mail, e-mail, or telephone.

Sincerely,





Pam Rosa, Student Researcher
309-241-1181
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Christopher Lubienski, Associate Professor
217-333-4382
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If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant please contact Anne Robertson, Bureau of Educational Research, 217-333-3023, or arobrtsn@illinois.edu or the Institutional Review Board at 217-333-2670 or irb@uiuc.edu.

DIRECTIONS: Please answer all questions on this survey honestly and to the best of your ability. Your responses wil help inform research focused upon defining school administrators' work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement. Please circle or check appropriate responses.

Background Characteristics

For questions 1-3, Please tell us a lilttle bit about the school where you currently work.

1. (SC_1) What is the level of your school? *(Check one)*
   - ___Elementary
   - ___Middle School
   - ___High School
   - ___Other

---

2. (SC_2) What is the student population of your school? *(Check one)*
   - ___350 or less students
   - ___Between 351 and 800 students
   - ___More than 800 students

---

3. (SC_3) What is the student mobility of your school? *(Check one)*
   - ___Less than 20%
   - ___20% or higher

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE →

Questions 4-7 ask you to indicate the **amount of work** you do in the following areas of ***Instructional Leadership*** at your school.

	An extremely small amount	**A small amount**	***A moderate amount***	**A large amount**	***An extremely large amount***
4. (IL_4_01) Observing the instruction of individual teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
5. (IL_4_02) Initiating or coordinating specific instructional improvement activities.	1	2	3	4	5
6. (IL_4_03) Monitoring the progress of specific instructional improvement activities.	1	2	3	4	5
7. (IL_4_03) Monitoring the progress of specific instructional improvement activities.	1	2	3	4	5

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Questions 8-12 ask you to indicate the extent to which the following aspects of **Instructional Leadership are a priority** in your administrative work.

	Very limited priority	**Limited priority**	***Moderate priority***	**Important priority**	***Extremely important priority***
8. (IL_6_01) Helping teachers carefully track student academic progress.	1	2	3	4	5
9. (IL_6_02) Facilitating teachers' understanding of how students learn best.	1	2	3	4	5
10. (IL_6_03) Pressing teachers to implement what they have learned in professional development.	1	2	3	4	5
11. (IL_6_05) Setting high standards for teaching and student-learning.	1	2	3	4	5
12. (IL_6_06) Making expectations for meeting learning goals/targets clear to teachers.	1	2	3	4	5

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE →

Questions 13-15 ask you indicate the **amount of work** that you do in the following areas of **Inclusive Leadership** at your school.

How much work do you do in these aspects of Inclusive Leadership?	***An extremely small amount***	**A small amount**	***A moderate amount***	**A large amount**	***An extremely large amount***
13. (InL_7_01) Promoting shared responsibility for improving the school.	1	2	3	4	5
14. (InL_7_02) Supporting teachers in helping each other to do their best.	1	2	3	4	5
15. (InL_7_04) Supporting shared	1	2	3	4	5

INCLUSIVE LEADERSHIP

Questions 16-18 ask you indicate the extent to which the following aspects of **Inclusive Leadership are a priority** in your administrative work?

	Very limited priority	**Limited priority**	***Moderate priority***	**Important priority**	***Extremely important priority***
16. (InL_9_01) Being strongly committed to shared decision-making.	1	2	3	4	5
17. (InL_9_02) Working to create a sense of community in the school.	1	2	3	4	5
18. (InL_9_03) Promoting parent and community involvement in the school.	1	2	3	4	5

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE →

Questions 19 and 20 ask you to reflect on your perceptions of **how your teachers value you** at your school and **how you support district changes**.

19. (SATT_13_01) *To what **extent** do you feel valued by* **the teachers** at this school?	***A extremely small extent*** ***1***	***A small extent*** ***2***	***A moderate extent*** ***3***	***A large extent*** ***4***	***An extremely large extent*** ***5***
20. (SASC_18_01) *To what extent do you **agree** with this statement:* **Most district changes introduced in our school receive my strong support.**	**Strongly disagree** **1**	**Disagree** **2**		**Agree** **3**	**Strongly Agree** **4**

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR-TEACHER TRUST

Questions 19-23 ask you indicate the **amount of work** you do in developing **School administrator-Teacher Trust** within your school.

	An extremely small amount	**A small amount**	***A moderate amount***	**A large amount**	***An extremely large amount***
21. (SATT_10_01) Looking out for the personal welfare of teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
22. (SATT_10_02) Being an effective manager who makes the school run smoothly.	1	2	3	4	5
23. (SATT_10_03) Placing the needs of staff and students ahead of my personal and political interests.	1	2	3	4	5
24. (SATT_10_04) Taking a vested interest in the professional development of teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
25. (SATT_10_05) Taking a vested interest in the professional needs of the teaching teams or department teams.	1	2	3	4	5

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE

Questions 24-27 ask you about the extent to which the following aspects of **School Administrator-Teacher Trust <u>are a priority</u>** in your administrative work.

	Very limited priority	**Limited priority**	***Moderate priority***	**Important priority**	***Extremely important priority***
26. (SATT_12_01) Trusting the teachers at their word.	1	2	3	4	5
27. SATT_12_02) Having confidence in the expertise (e.g. content area, instructional planning and strategies, classroom management, professional responsibilities) of the teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
28. (SATT_12_03) Insisting faculty try new ideas (e.g. instructional strategies, professional activities, student support).	1	2	3	4	5
29. (SATT_12_04) Making it "ok" for staff members to discuss feelings, worries, and frustrations with me.	1	2	3	4	5

<u>SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR SUPPORTS FOR CHANGE</u>

Questions 28-32 ask you to indicate the **<u>amount of work</u>** you do in the following areas of **School administrator Supports for Change** that occurs in your school.

	An extremely small amount	**A small amount**	***A moderate amount***	**A large amount**	***An extremely large amount***
30. (SASC_15_01) Helping teachers have a "can do" attitude.	1	2	3	4	5
31. (SASC_15_02) Encouraging teachers to continually learn and seek new ideas for instructional planning and strategies, classroom management, or professional learning.	1	2	3	4	5
32. (SASC_15_03) Planning and/or conducting a variety of staff development activities.	1	2	3	4	5
33. (SASC_15_04) Hiring teachers based upon instructional priorities of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
34. (SASC_15_05) Encouraging teachers who are not effective to leave.	1	2	3	4	5

<u>PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE</u>

Questions 33-37 ask you about the extent to which the follow aspects of **School administrator Supports For Change <u>are a priority</u>** in your administrative work.

	Very limited priority	**Limited priority**	***Moderate priority***	**Important priority**	***Extremely important priority***
35. (SASC_17_01) Supporting and encouraging teachers to take risks.	1	2	3	4	5
36. (SASC_17_02) Being willing to make changes.	1	2	3	4	5
37. (SASC_17_03) Ensuring teachers try new methods of instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
38. (SASC_17_04) Providing materials and equipment that teachers need for their instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
39. (SASC_17_06) Removing poorly performing tenured teachers from the school.	1	2	3	4	5

<u>PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE</u> →

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Questions 40-44 ask you about your history as a school administrator.

40. (SABI_19) Where did you **last work before you became school administrator** of this school? *(check one)*

____This school ____A suburban school

____A rural public school ____Another district school

____District/Region/Area administrator ____A private school

____Central Office ____Other (please specify): _____

41. (SABI_20) How many **total years did you teach** before becoming a school administrator? *(check one)*

____None ____11 to 15 years

____1 to 5 years ____16 to 20 years

____6 to 10 years ____More than 20 years

42. (SABI_21) Please indicate how many **total years experience** you have:

As a school administrator? Number of years_____

In your current position? Number of years_____

43. (SABI_22) Are you: *(check one)*

_____Male _____Female

44. (SABI_23) What is the **highest degree** you have earned? *(check one)*

____Bachelor's degree ____Master's +30

____Master's degree ____Master's +45

____Master's +15 ____Doctorate

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE →

TEACHER-EVALUATION

Questions 45-53 ask you to rate ***your agreement*** with the following statements about **implementing the district's new Teacher-evaluation process** (based upon Charlotte Danielson's *The Framework for Teaching).*

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	***Mildly Disagree***	***Mildly Agree***	**Agree**	***Strongly Agree***
45. (TE_24_01) The new district teacher-evaluation system accurately assesses teacher performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. (TE_24_02) The new district teacher-evaluation system accurately assesses student-learning/growth based upon teacher performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47. (TE_24_03) The new district teacher-evaluation system helps me to make decisions about assigning students to a specific teacher.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48. (TE_24_04) The new district teacher-evaluation system is a useful tool in the removal of low-performing teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49. (TE_24_05) I am confident in my abilities to evaluate the instructional practices of all my teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50. (TE_24_06) I have time to give feedback to teacher on their instructional practice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51. (TE_24_07) The evaluation process encourages teacher in my school to reflect on their instructional practice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52. (TE_24_08) Teachers are given feedback based upon teacher-evaluation system to improve their teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
53. (TE_24_09) Teachers are given feedback about student achievement within the teacher-evaluation system.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE →

***TEACHER-EVALUATION* cont.**

Questions 54-61 ask you to r*ate* ***your agreement*** *with the following statements* ***regarding your work in using the Charlotte Danielson's Framework for Teaching as an evaluation tool****:*

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	***Mildly Disagree***	***Mildly Agree***	**Agree**	***Strongly Agree***
54. (TE_25_01) The *Framework for Teaching* has improved my ability to evaluate my teachers accurately.	1	2	3	4	5	6
55. (TE_25_02) The *Framework for Teaching* allows me to identify specific areas where my teachers can improve.	1	2	3	4	5	6
56. (TE_25_03) The *Framework for Teaching* helps me to identify appropriate supports (e.g. mentoring, professional development, teaching resources) my teachers need in order to improve.	1	2	3	4	5	6
57. (TE_25_04) The *Framework for Teaching* is too complex to be useful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
58. (TE_25_05) The *Framework for Teaching* has improved the quality of my conversations with teachers about instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
59. (TE_25_06) The *Framework for Teaching* has improved the quality of my conversations with teachers about student-learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
60. (TE_25_07) The *Framework for Teaching* provides a common definition of high quality teaching in my school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
61. (TE_25_08) The *Framework for Teaching* is an improvement over the past district teacher-evaluation tool.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE →

Please read and respond to the following question:

62. **What features should a comprehensive Teacher-evaluation system have in order to support School Improvement?**

Thank you for taking this survey. Your time is much appreciated!

Appendix B

Relationships Between School Administrators' Work in Teacher Evaluation and School Improvement Interview Protocol

School Administrator Interview Protocol

TIME OF INTERVIEW:

DATE:

PLACE:

INTERVIEWER:

INTERVIEWEE:

POSITION OF INTERVIEWEE:

INTRODUCTION

Thank you for participating in this interview today because I know this is a very busy time of year. This interview should last approximately 45 minutes to an hour. The purpose of this interview is to explore in a personalized manner the relationship between your work in teacher-evaluation and school improvement. Please understand that there are no right or wrong answers. Most of the questions are designed to understand more deeply the preliminary findings of the questionnaire through the contextualization of your day-to-day work as a school administrator. Most of the questions are designed to explore your work in both school leadership and teacher-evaluation. The final question will focus upon the link between your leadership work at the school level and district priorities for implementing a new teacher-evaluation process.

Please feel free to interrupt, have questions restated, or stop the interview at any time.
Do you have any questions for me before we begin? Ok, we will go ahead and start.

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR BACKGROUND

Before we begin, I'd like to ask a few questions about your experience as an educator:

- How many years have you been a school administrator? At this school/in this role? [Subject or grade level]
- If you have been a teacher, how many total years did you teach? What did you teach?
- Where did you work before you became a School Administrator at this school?
- How many more years do you expect to serve as a School Administrator?
- How would you describe your school in terms of student population and school improvement priorities?

PRELIMINARY THEMES OF DEVELOPING A COMPREHENSIVE TEACHER-EVALUATION SYSTEM

I would first like to share three themes that emerged from preliminary survey results regarding priorities for developing a comprehensive Teacher-evaluation system that would support School Improvement.

1) The first theme that emerged for a comprehensive Teacher-evaluation system is the need for Student Achievement Growth Data.
    a. What role does Student-growth Data play in your current work in Teacher-evaluation?

    b. Ideally, how would you like to use Student-growth Data with Teacher-evaluation?
        - What do you think would work best for using Student-growth Data?

        - How big of a role should Student-growth Data play in the overall summative Teacher-evaluation rating?

2) The second theme, based upon seven sub-themes, for developing a comprehensive Teacher-evaluation system was measuring Teacher performance through the use of common indicators of quality teaching (rubrics), differentiated process/strategies, and a variety of data collection tools.
    a. Based upon your experience with the current Teacher-evaluation rubric, process, and tools, what do you find to be effective (or simple to use) in measuring Teacher performance?

    b. What do you find cumbersome or complex in the current Teacher-evaluation process for measuring Teacher performance?

    c. Can you give me an example or two of effective ways that you have found for improving Teachers' professional practice and growth?

3) The third theme focuses upon the importance of having a common expectations for professional practice of both non-tenured and tenured staff.
    a. Do you think that your staff has shared common expectations for professional practice? (Yes or No)
        - If yes, what did you do to help support these common expectations of professional practice?
        - If no, what do you think are the challenges to developing common expectations for professional practice?

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP BASED UPON FOUR CONSTRUCTS

Next, we are going to talk about some specific aspects of your work as a school leader in the four areas of Instructional Leadership, Inclusive Leadership, School Administrator-Teacher Trust, and School Administrator Support for Change.

4) In your work as a school leader, what enables or hinders your work for initiating or leading school improvement activities for teachers?

5) Continuing with the concept of professional learning for your staff, can you tell me about some of the routines or approaches that have been developed in your school to support teachers in utilizing appropriate instructional practices to support increased student-learning?

6) As previously discussed, the school administrators believe that there is a need to use student achievement data as a part of the process for measuring teacher effectiveness. Based upon this need, how do you currently help teachers to manage/track their students' academic progress?

7) Change can be hard! Can you give an example of a big change during the past 2 years that you helped to usher into your school? What types of things did you do to make the change "do-able"?

8) If I were to ask you what "looking out for the welfare of teachers" means in your school, what would you say?

TEACHER-EVALUATION PROCESS AND TOOLS

9) If you had more time (literally) to utilize the Teacher-evaluation process and aligned tools more effectively, what would you use this extra time to do?
    a. On a daily basis?
    b. On a weekly basis?
    c. On a monthly basis?
    d. On a yearly basis?

10) In relationship to other important decisions that school leaders make, how important do you think that removing poorly performing tenured teachers is as a leadership priority?

11) Tell me how your past experiences as a teacher have influenced your work as a school leader and as an evaluator of teaching (ie. in creating a professional community for learning, providing feedback to Teachers to improve instruction, providing support to Teachers)?

12) As you can probably tell, I am interested in understanding how the current Teacher-evaluation process has affected your work as a school leader, especially in the area of school improvement.
    a. Can you give me some examples of how the teacher-evaluation process has been able to support your work in school improvement?

    b. Can you give me some examples of how the teacher-evaluation process has been a hindrance or challenge to your work in school improvement?

13) Finally, the district's Teacher-evaluation plan describes the purpose for developing the teacher-evaluation process as being threefold: (1) to support and focus professional growth and development of distinguished teaching practices; (2) to unify teachers and administration in maximizing student-learning; and (3) to ensure a quality professional staff. After this year of implementing the district evaluation plan, share some examples of how these purposes are "playing out" in your school?

Appendix C

Information Form for Honorarium or Interview Participation for Defining Relationships between School Administrators' Work in Teacher Evaluation and Leadership in School Improvement Questionnaire

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. Below is a request for additional information for two reasons: 1) If you would like to receive a $5 gift card honorarium, and/or 2) If you would be willing to participate in a follow-up interview to explore in a personalized manner the work that you do in teacher-evaluation and school improvement. Your voluntary participation would involve being asked to participate in a semi-structured interview to last approximately 45-60 minutes at a place of your choosing. Each interviewee will be given a $5 gift card honorarium of appreciation.

Gift Card Honorarium

_____ Yes, I would like to receive a $5 gift card honorarium for my participation in this survey.

_____No, I would prefer not to receive a $5 gift card honorarium for my participation in this survey.

Follow-up Interview

_____ Yes, I would be willing to participate in a follow-up interview regarding teacher-evaluation and school improvement.

_____No, I would not be willing to participate in a follow-up interview.

Please print first/last name: _____

School Building: _____

Email: _____

If you have any questions about completing this Information Form, please contact:

Pam Rosa, dissertation student researcher, at pam.rosa@cecillinois.org or 309-241-1181 or

Chris Lubienski, dissertation advisor, at club@illinois.edu

Appendix D

Consent Form for Focal Participation in a Research Study
University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign

Defining Relationships between School Administrators' Work in Teacher Evaluation and Leadership in School Improvement

Thank you for agreeing to participant in this research study conducted by doctoral student candidate, Pamela Rosa, under the guidance of professor and advisor Dr. Chris Lubienski, in the Education Organization Leadership department of the College of Education at the University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign.

The purpose of this interview is to explore in a personalized manner the relationship between implementation of the district teacher appraisal process and School Administrators' work around school improvement. Your voluntary participation today involves participating in a semi-structured interview to last approximately 45-60 minutes. You may refuse to participate or may discontinue participation at any time during the interview.

There are no foreseeable physical risks associated with this research; however, there are emotional risks because you will be reflecting upon your leadership practices and decisions regarding teacher appraisal and school improvement. Upon completion of the interview, all participants will be given a gift card to a local café as a token of appreciation for your time and willingness to share your leadership experiences.

All digital recordings and transcriptions of individual interviews will be kept strictly confidential and secure, and I will do everything I can to protect your privacy including use of a pseudonym and removing and/or concealing identifying comments in my writing. Results of this research will be published in a dissertation thesis and may be presented at conferences and in journal publications. After three years, all recordings and transcripts shall be destroyed.

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, or if any problems arise, please contact Dr. Christopher Lubienski, professor and advisor at the University of Illinois at 217-333-4382 or by email club@illinois.edu, or Pamela Rosa, doctoral candidate researcher at 309-241-1181 or pam.rosa@cecillinois.org. If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a participant in this study, please contact the University of Illinois Bureau of Educational Research at 217-333-3023 or via email at info@educationa.illinois.edu.

*I have read and understand the above consent form and voluntarily agree to participant in this interview.

I agree to participate in the interview: Yes_____No_____

Participant's
Signature_____Date_____

*An extra copy of this consent form has been provided for you to take with you for your records.

Appendix E

ANOVA Results of School Improvement Leadership Work, School Leadership Priority, and Teacher Evaluation by Teaching Experience

Table E1

ANOVA Results of Instructional Leadership Work by Years Teaching Prior

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
Teaching experience	1.743	2	0.872	1.395	.255
Errors	39.367	63	0.625		

Based on the results of above, it was be seen that the numbers of years of teaching before becoming an administrator did not have a significant impact on the Instructional Leadership Work scores of the individual at the .05 level of significance, $F(2, 63) = 1.395$, $p = .255$.

Table E2

ANOVA Results of Instructional Leadership Priority by Years Teaching Prior

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
Teaching Experience	0.527	2	0.263	0.589	.558
Errors	28.171	63	0.447		

Based upon the results provided above, teaching experience (number of years teaching before becoming an administrator) did not have a significant impact on Instructional Leadership Priority scores of the individual administrator, $F(2, 63) = 0.589$, $p = .558$.

Table E3

ANOVA Results of Inclusive Leadership Work by Years Teaching Prior

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
Teaching Experience	0.139	2	0.07	0.19	.828
Errors	23.086	63	0.366		

Similarly, based upon the above table, it was observed that there was no significant impact on Inclusive Leadership Work scores of an individual based upon the number of years of teaching before becoming an administrator, $F(2, 63) = .19$, $p = .828$.

Table E4

ANOVA Results of Inclusive Leadership Priority by Years Teaching Prior

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
Teaching Experience	0.652	2	0.326	1.182	.313
Errors	17.362	63	0.276		

Based upon the results presented above, the number of years of experience of teaching a school administrator had did not have a significant impact on the Inclusive Leadership Priority scores, $F(2, 63) = 1.18$, $p = .313$, after controlling for the other variables.

Table E5

ANOVA Results of School Administrator-Teacher Trust Work by Years Teaching Prior

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
Teaching Experience	0.241	2	0.12	0.461	.633
Errors	16.461	63	0.261		

Based upon the results presented above, it can be gleaned that teaching experience (number of years of teaching before becoming a school administrator) did not have significant impact on School Administrator-Teacher Trust work, $F(2, 63) = 0.46$, $p = .633$.

Table E6

ANOVA Results of School Administrator-Teacher Trust Priority by Years Teaching Prior

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
Teaching Experience	0.392	2	0.196	0.882	.419
Errors	14	63	0.222		

Based upon the results presented above, it can be seen that teaching experience did not have a significant impact on the School Administrator-Teacher Trust priority, $F(2, 63) = 0.88$, $p = .419$.

Table E7

ANOVA Results of School Administrator Supports for Change Work Years Teaching Prior

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
Teaching Experience	0.907	2	0.453	1.047	.357
Errors	27.293	63	0.433		

Based on the results above, it was be seen that the numbers of years of teaching before becoming an administrator did not have a significant impact on the School Administrator Supports for Change work scores of the individual at the .05 level of significance, $F(2, 63) = 1.05$, $p = .357$.

Table E8

ANOVA Results of School Administrator Supports for Change Priority by Years Teaching Prior

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
Teaching Experience	0.527	2	0.264	0.682	.509
Errors	24.361	63	0.387		

Based upon the results provided above, teaching experience (number of years teaching before becoming an administrator) did not have a significant impact on School Administrator Supports for Change priority scores of the individual administrator, $F(2, 63) = 0.682$, $p = .509$.

Table E9

ANOVA Results of School Improvement Work by Years Teaching Prior

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
Teaching Experience	4.963	2	2.482	0.658	.521
Errors	237.504	63	3.77		

Similarly, based upon the table above, it was observed that there was no significant impact on School Improvement Work scores of an individual based upon the number of years of teaching before becoming an administrator, $F(2, 63) = .658$, $p = .521$.

Table E10

ANOVA Results of School Improvement Priority Teaching Prior

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
Teaching Experience	7.42	2	3.71	1.218	.303
Errors	191.865	63	3.045		

Based upon the results presented above, the number of years of experience of teaching a school administrator had did not have a significant impact on the School Improvement priority scores, $F(2, 63) = 1.218$, $p = .303$, after controlling for the other variables.

Appendix F

ANOVA Results of School Improvement Leadership and Priority and Teacher Evaluation

Table F1

ANOVA Results of Teacher-evaluation Process Work by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	0.092	2	0.046	0.136	.873
Errors	21.346	63	0.339		

Based on the results above, it was be seen that the level of school did not have a significant impact on the Teacher-evaluation process scores of the individual at the .05 level of significance, $F(2, 63) = 0.136$, $p = .873$.

Table F2

ANOVA Results of Teacher-evaluation Tool by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	0.334	2	0.167	0.507	.605
Errors	20.731	63	0.329		

Based upon the results provided above, level of school (elementary, middle school, high school) did not have a significant impact on Teacher-evaluation Tool scores of the individual administrator, $F(2, 63) = 0.507$, $p = .605$.

Table F3

ANOVA Results of Teacher-evaluation Total by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	0.22	2	0.11	0.1	.905
Errors	69.527	63	1.104		

Similarly, based upon the data provided above, it was observed that there was no significant impact on Teacher-evaluation tool scores based upon school level, $F(2, 63) = .1$, $p = .905$.

Table F4

ANOVA Results of School Improvement Work Total by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	2.323	2	1.161	0.299	.742
Errors	244.437	63	3.88		

Based upon the results presented above, it can be seen that level of school did not have a significant impact on the School Improvement Work total, $F(2, 63) = 0.30$, $p = .742$.

Table F5

ANOVA Results of School Improvement Priority Total by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	1.270	2	0.635	0.213	.809
Errors	188.125	63	2.986		

Based upon the results presented above, it can be seen that level of school did not have a significant impact on the School Improvement priority total, $F(2, 63) = 0.21$, $p = .809$.

Table F6

ANOVA Results of Inclusive Leadership Priority by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	0.066	2	0.033	0.073	.930
Errors	28.381	63	0.45		

Based upon the results presented above, the level of school in which a school administrator works did not have a significant impact on the Inclusive Leadership Priority scores, $F(2, 63) = 0.073$, $p = .930$, after controlling for the other variables.

Table F7

ANOVA Results of School Administrator -Teacher Trust Work by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	0.246	2	0.123	0.318	.729
Errors	24.362	63	0.387		

Based upon the results presented above, it can be gleaned that school level (elementary, middle school, high school) did not have significant impact on School Administrator-Teacher Trust work, $F(2, 63) = 0.318$, $p = .729$.

Table F8

ANOVA Results of School Administrator-Teacher Trust Priority by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	2.323	2	1.161	0.299	.742
Errors	244.437	63	3.88		

Based upon the results presented above, it can be seen that school level did not have a significant impact on the School Administrator-Teacher Trust priority, $F(2, 63) = 0.299$, $p = .742$.

Table F9

ANOVA Results of Instructional Leadership Work by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	2.938	2	1.469	2.358	.103
Errors	39.249	63	0.623		

Based on the results above, it was seen that the level of school did not have a significant impact on the Instructional Leadership work scores of the individual at the .05 level of significance, $F(2, 63) = 2.358$, $p = .103$.

Table F10

ANOVA Results of Instructional Leadership Priority by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	1.03	2	0.515	1.24	.296
Errors	26.163	63	0.415		

Based upon the results provided above, level of school (elementary, middle school, high school) did not have a significant impact on Instructional Leadership priority scores of the individual administrator, $F(2, 63) = 1.24$, $p = .296$.

Table F11

ANOVA Results of Inclusive Leadership Work by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	0.243	2	0.122	0.335	.717
Errors	22.882	63	0.363		

Similarly, based upon the table provided above, it was observed that there was no significant impact on Inclusive Leadership work scores of an individual based upon the level of school, $F(2, 63) = 0.335$, $p = .717$.

Table F12

ANOVA Results of Inclusive Leadership Priority by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	0.253	2	0.127	0.449	.640
Errors	17.76	63	0.282		

Based upon the results presented above, the level of school in which a school administrator works did not have a significant impact on the Inclusive Leadership priority scores, $F(2, 63) = 0.073$, $p = .930$, after controlling for the other variables.

Table F13

ANOVA Results of School Administrator-Teacher Trust Work by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	0.461	2	0.23	0.88	.420
Errors	16.486	63	0.262		

Based upon the results provided above, level of school (elementary, middle school, high school) did not have a significant impact on School Administrator-Teacher Trust priority scores of the individual administrator, $F(2, 63) = 0.88$, $p = .420$.

Table F14

ANOVA Results of School Administrator-Teacher Trust Priority by Level of School

Source	SS	df	MS	*F*	Sig.
School Level	0.637	2	0.318	1.575	.215
Errors	12.737	63	0.202		

Based on the results of in the table above, it was seen that the level of school did not have a significant impact on the School Administrator-Teacher Trust priority scores of the individual at the .05 level of significance, $F(2, 63) = 1.575$, $p = .215$.